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CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION
OF SCOTLAND



PROCEEDINGS, 1906-7

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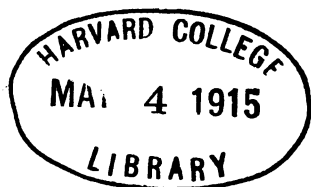
CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION
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PROCEEDINGS 1906-7

EDINBURGH
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1907



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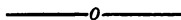
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MEETING HELD AT EDINBURGH,

On SATURDAY, 17th NOVEMBER 1906.



THE NINTH GENERAL MEETING of the ASSOCIATION was held in the Fine Art Class-Room, Edinburgh University, on Saturday, 17th November 1906, at 11 A.M. The President, Professor G. G. RAMSAY, LL.D., took the Chair, and at the commencement of business there was an attendance of nearly seventy members. The Annual Reports of the Secretary and the Treasurer for the year 1905-6 were submitted. At 31st October 1906 the Association had 214 members, but since that date a large addition to the membership had been secured, chiefly through the efforts of the President. The balance carried forward to the year 1906-7 amounted to £75, 3s. 1d. On the motion of the President, both reports were adopted.

Professor HARDIE, Edinburgh, Mr BUCKLAND GREEN, Edinburgh, Mr R. K. HANNAY, St Andrews, and Dr H. N. PATRICK, Bothwell, were elected to serve on the Council for three years from this date.

On the recommendation of the Council dates for General Meetings in 1907 were fixed as follows:—Aberdeen, 9th March 1907; Glasgow, 16th November 1907.

A motion was submitted by the PRESIDENT, "That the Annual Subscription be reduced to five shillings." This was seconded by Professor HARDIE, and, after some discussion, the motion was adopted, and the Annual Subscription fixed at five shillings.

Professor **HARDIE**, Convener of the Special Committee on Latin Pronunciation, reported that his Committee had prepared the final form of the Syllabus on Pronunciation (Appendix p. 79). The scheme was practically identical with the Provisional Report and Summary printed in the Fourth Volume of Proceedings (pp. 45-59). The President proposed that the Association should adopt the scheme as adjusted by the Special Committee, and this was unanimously agreed to.

The **PRESIDENT** thereafter delivered an address on the Work of the Association during the past year, and at the outset thanked members for their kindness and sympathy during his enforced absence, through illness, from the meetings.

THE PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN,—It is with real pleasure that I greet to-day my friends of the Classical Association. I have been prevented for a whole year from doing my duty to the Association, and I have greatly regretted not being able to take part in the interesting proceedings which have marked the year now closed. But Professor Butcher and Professor Burnet performed the Presidential duty far more ably than I could have done; your Council provided you with a very appetising bill of fare; and I have myself to thank you most warmly for the kind messages forwarded to me by the Association during my necessary absence last winter.

I appear before you to-day in a new character—that of an extinct Professor; and as it seemed to me unfitting that this vigorous society should be headed by one of the unemployed, I begged the Council to look for another President. But the remorseless kindness of their attitude has made it impossible for

me not to attempt, at least, a return to duty for this occasion ; and if I am not able to-day to perform adequately all the duties of my position, you will understand that it is not my will that is wanting. For indeed I feel somewhat like that Parthian host described by Tacitus, whose condition was thus reported to the enemy, *ne animo quidem satis ad obsequium coaluisse*—a phrase admirably rendered for me not long ago by a candidate in the Indian Civil Service Examination, “they reported that the army had not even spirit enough for a funeral.”

In addition to my own academic demise, there are other matters of personal interest to us to-day. Professor Phillimore has applied to himself that process of translation which he has already applied so felicitously to the poets of Greece and Rome ; and while we all hope that this translation will be no less felicitous in its results to him, we may all congratulate the University of George Buchanan in having her Chair of Humanity occupied by one of the purest Latinists of our time. You will be glad no doubt to know that there was nothing incorrect in this translation of Professor Phillimore. Such a transference was specially sanctioned in the *Nova Erectio*, granted by King James VI. to the University of Glasgow in 1577 ; and provides that if the interests of the University require that two regents shall swop their subjects, and if the Gymnasiarch, that is the Principal, so orders, such interchange may be permitted. At the time, no doubt, the idea was that if a professor proved incompetent to teach the subject for which he had been appointed, it might be well to let him try his hand at something else. They little contemplated the possibility of a professor who had already obtained distinction in one Chair going on to earn still greater distinction in another. Then in Professor Phillimore's place we have to welcome with open arms his successor, Professor Davies, who comes to us laden with a double reputation, one gained in Liverpool and one in Cambridge. I feel sure that he will become an ardent and helpful member of our society. You have already been able to judge of his quality from the refined

and thoughtful championship of Greek, as the parent of abstract thought, which he undertook in his inaugural lecture; and we can trust him to battle, on broad and liberal lines, against the specious and base utilities which in every field of knowledge are threatening to deprive Education of its soul.

Your work during the past year strikes me as having been peculiarly interesting and important. In Glasgow you had the wise words and kindly presence of Professor Butcher, and what must have been the charming illustrated lecture on Greek dress by Professor Baldwin Brown. I greatly regret that owing to the lecture having been mainly or entirely oral, those not present on that occasion are not able to gather from the report all the details they would like to know on this subject, so essential for the understanding of ancient Art, and to appreciate for themselves "the reasonableness and the lucidity"—I presume that by "lucidity" is not meant the transparency—of Greek dress.

In St Andrews, under the excellent chairmanship of Professor Burnet, you had a most subtle and suggestive paper from Professor Bosanquet, who struck the true classical note in basing his paper on the principle that "nowhere were the great simple foundation stones of social ethics so nobly laid as they are laid by Plato;" and who paid the schools of Scotland the great compliment of presuming that their best scholars were ripe for the study in the Greek of the greatest of all philosophers. I most heartily echo that most pious prayer, though I fear that perhaps some of them if asked to explain the phrase of Horace, *Socraticis madet sermonibus*, might be tempted to render the *madet* as a student of mine once rendered it, "driven mad by the dialect of Socrates." Nevertheless, I can myself recall the extraordinary stimulus and eye-opening which I received when I was but fourteen years of age by reading Plato's "Apology" under the late Principal Shairp in the Fifth Form of Rugby School.

But the most important and far-reaching part of your work last year was the issuing and the considering of the Report on the Pronunciation of Latin, which, I hope, you will make it your

principal business to adopt finally to-day. For that masterly report our warmest thanks are due to Professor Hardie and to the committee over which he presided; and as I anticipate that the adoption of that report will be followed by admirable results all over Scotland, and in every school of every grade in which Latin is taught, I wish to make some remarks on it from a practical point of view, based on my experience as a teacher of Latin to Scotch students for forty-five years.

First, I have the pleasure of informing you that in proposing the adoption of a uniform system of pronunciation, we have the warm approval of the Education Department; and, subject to some slight adjustment of the syllabus which we propose to issue, we are to have the authoritative assistance of the Department in recommending it to the schools. Our advances in this matter have been met by the Department in the most sympathetic manner; and although, as we all know, it is not within the province of the Department to favour unduly any one of the subjects of education at the expense of others, but to hold the balance equally between all, it has made it abundantly clear by its Minutes and Circulars that its first object is to secure that every separate subject shall be taught in the best possible way.

I feel I may freely praise the Report, because I have had nothing to do with the drawing up of it: but I agree heartily with every word of it. It is at once practical and scientific. It lays stress all through upon the essential points, and yet it is not inhumanly autocratic. Indeed, at one point in his remarks, Professor Hardie proclaims himself both an autocrat and an anarchist; professing himself ready, in regard to one of his own rules, to imitate Pompey the Great by becoming a law-maker and a law-breaker both in one. That is sound liberal policy in regard to trifles; but in regard to essentials, we can allow no opportunism in our Duma, no Social Democrats, to interfere with the autocracy of scholarlike correctness.

Now, this Report deals with three fundamental points, treating each in exactly the right spirit: *Quantity, Pronunciation,*

and *Accent*. I hope you will bear with me while I say a word on each.

The question of Quantity was not specially referred to the committee, but it stands at the threshold of the whole question and bars the way. It is useless to speak of any one as being a Latin scholar if he does not know the fundamental rules and facts of quantity; it is impossible to read one line of Latin poetry correctly without knowing how the laws of quantity are applied to, and are to be learnt from, the study—and really it is a very simple study—of ordinary Latin versification. Now, we in Scotland have a bad reputation across the border in the matter of Latin quantities. A much greater percentage of our people know something of Latin than in England: amongst these therefore the percentage of imperfect Latinists is greater. Our friends of the long robe in Parliament House, boasting their descent from the great lawyers of Rome, have erected false Latin quantities into a science; and too few of our scholars, alas! have been taught to follow in the footsteps of George Buchanan as a writer of verse. Yet it is not the fault of our nation: for have we not within the last few days, to the great pride of this Association, received from a true Scot, holding the Latin Chair in Edinburgh, a poem on George Buchanan's life, written in Hexameters equal to his own?

But still we have a bad name for quantities. I have heard it said by English scholars that Scotland is steeped in false quantities; and it is a fact, in spite of all our efforts—in spite of always setting one quantity question in the papers for the Preliminary Examination—that students come up to the universities, having passed that strict examination, capable of making gross grammatical blunders from ignorance of the simplest facts of prosody. In a recent examination in Propertius there occurred the second halves of two Pentameters; the one was *mōbīlīs ūnā Nōtōs*, the other was *pāgīnā nostrā ūā*. Yet students otherwise well informed translated *unā* as if it were the adverb *unā*, and *paginā* as if it were the ablative *paginā*, making nonsense in both cases. Such mistakes as these are inexcusable.

In the churchyard at Durness there is a pathetic and learned Latin inscription, one line of which contains no fewer than five false quantities :—

Et æcriter variis mœmordit vltia mœdis.

I fear also that it was from a Scottish pen that proceeded the notable tragic couplet :—

*“ Once more I stand upon this festive scene,
Sacred to Thalia and to Melpomene ! ”*

Now it is not the least necessary for us to bring in *Thalia* or *Melpomene* into our conversation ; but, if we do, it is indispensable that we should pronounce their names correctly ; and when a young lady tells you that she greatly admires the statue of “ Laocœon ” of the Vatican ; or when an old lady tells you that some event has been put off *sine die*—you know at once that neither of them was brought up among educated people.

Nevertheless the English are by no means always immaculate. I can tell you a story of the head of an English public department, to whom it was suggested that for one year one single article in a certain code of regulations might, as an experiment, be left unchanged. “ Well, well,” at last he said, “ perhaps it will be better, *quieta non movēre*.” So Scotsmen are not the only sinners.

Now, without some knowledge of the fundamental principles of Latin quantity, we are perpetually liable to making such mistakes. Our language is so full of Latin phrases that we cannot avoid using them sometimes ; and, when any one makes a mistake of that kind, he renders himself open to what is the most odious of all imputations to an educated man, that of pretending to knowledge which he does not possess.

We can take comfort, however, by observing that all nations make mistakes in their quantities. Even the Germans, who, with all their learning, neglect somewhat the more polite sides of classical learning, had the reputation of being lax in their

quantities: and I can remember a saying which, in my boyhood, was put into the mouth of a great German scholar—no doubt libellously:—

De syllabarum quantitātibus nos Germāni non curāmus.

But if Scotch quantities are, as a rule, worse than English, we can turn the tables upon our friends south of the Tweed in the matter of pronunciation. It is not merely that the broad and proper pronunciation of the vowels comes naturally to us; but that, in point of fact, the English, in the matter of pronunciation, are the most hopeless people on the face of the earth. You all know how the English massacre the most common Scotch names when they come across the Border. You all know the story of the English tourist who was asked to look up "Loch Awe" in Murray's Time-table, who could find no such name, but at last said there was a name there which spelt "Lock-a-wee." You know how at Euston Station they actually change the spelling of Scotch stations to enable their English throats to pronounce them; and how even Scotch directors have pandered to English tourists by changing the good old Scottish town of *Kilmārcōlm* into the preposterous *Kilmālcōlm*. I have myself known English tenants occupying places in Scotland for twenty years without ever learning how to pronounce the names of the houses in which they lived; and when we go abroad, what is there that grates on our ears so harshly, and destroys every atom of national self-respect so completely, as to hear the travelled English dame—for the good, honest English gentleman, to do him justice, wherever he goes, finds English enough for him—pouring forth voluble floods of execrable French? The Englishman, himself accustomed to the most crazy of all systems of pronunciation, takes it for granted that, by divine law, all other languages are pronounced like his own; and, of course, he has applied that system to the pronunciation of Latin. I was present at the Bodleian celebration at Oxford in 1902; I heard the finished Latin oration of the Public Orator,

Dr Merry; and I shall never forget the consternation on the faces of the learned scholars of Europe as they discovered that they were not able to follow one sentence in a language which up to that time they believed they could understand.

Well, in Scotland we are all right as to our vowels: perhaps with no particular merit of our own. But it is high time that we should put our consonants in order also. The hard pronunciation of *c* and *g* is already in use in most of the important schools in Scotland; when I recently took a census of my class upon the subject, I was delighted to find that not 10 per cent. of the class had been taught on any other system. As to the question of the *v* and the *w*, that is wisely left, in our Report, as more or less an open question; though in the English Pronunciation Report it is made a compulsory point. But my belief is that, with the other proposals, it will speedily solve itself. I do not myself believe in the absolute reproduction of the wishy-washy English *w*. Does any nation of Europe make use of that identical sound? I may be wrong, but I believe not. On the other hand, it is not necessary to pronounce the *v* with the determined closeness which we use when we speak of a person as a "vile viper"; and I imagine that persons skilled in phonetics would tell us that if the *v* be pronounced a little more openly—a little more carelessly, if you will—a sound will be reached, as in the oft-quoted German word for "widow," which will be approximately correct, and in which the vowel and consonant uses of the letter are gradually fused into each other. My friend Mr Rankin tells me that it has been observed in parts of Germany that when people use the *v* sound you think it is a *w*, and when they use the *w* you think it is a *v*; so that, in fact, it comes back to the classical "Spell it with a *wee*, my lord."

There is another point which I regard as of the highest importance, and in which great care must be taken—and that is to eschew entirely the parasitical, debased sound given to English *c* and *t* in such words as "ocean" and "nation." Let

us teach our scholars, above all things, (1) to give every consonant *purely*, as in the Italian "Oceanus" and "Natio," without a vestige of any added or transitional sound; and (2)—an injunction sadly needed in Scotland—to sound every consonant completely and distinctly, not with that slobbered, smothered indistinctness so familiar to us in the Capital of the West, where even that noblest of all words—the word "Latin" itself—is so pronounced that the *t* is absolutely inaudible.

This point of enunciation leads me naturally to the question of *accent*; and I wish here to call attention to the interesting discussion on the whole subject at the Glasgow meeting last year. Rule 2 of the Provisional Summary says: "Latin should be pronounced more slowly than in English, and with a slighter accent." Simple as the Latin accent is, Mr Shier rightly said that "he thought it impossible to combine quantity with accent." Professor Hardie declared that "English accentuation involved quantity; and that if the English accent were used in Latin, quantity would be entirely effaced." The speakers were unanimous in the opinion that quantity is *the* one thing to aim at, and must be put before everything else. What is the natural inference from these opinions? The obvious conclusion is that if we are to make sure of quantity, the first thing to do is to unlearn and to unteach the English accent, which makes the correct reading of Latin impossible. I was taught in England to read *Arma virumque cāno*. I had to pronounce the *i* and the *a* exactly as long syllables were pronounced in such words as *cānus* and *vīrus*; and yet the next minute I was caned if I did not know that both syllables were short! Let us teach our scholars that the accentuation of English is as singular and as insular as its pronunciation, and that the first step towards being able to speak any other language correctly is to get rid of it. This is what causes *the* great difficulty to English learners of French. The English accentuate one syllable in a word, and let all the rest slide; in French every syllable must be more or less enunciated.

We say *abominable*, *abomindtion*, *difficulty*, *intérminable*, *inconsistent*, *illustrated*—one syllable dominating the whole, reckless of long syllables and double consonants. To the French such monarchical accentuation is impossible. To take an instance I have often given. Napoleon III. built a building called the “Trocadero” in the Champs Elysées; and I remember at the time being present at a fierce discussion as to whether the word should be pronounced *Trocádero* or *Trocadéro*. When I went to Paris I found that both methods were equally wrong, the French pronouncing the four syllables with almost perfect equality—with just that delicate French intonation which no foreigner can catch.

Therefore, I say, as an introduction to the speaking of all foreign languages, living or dead, as well as to the clear articulate speaking of our own tongue, let us teach our scholars to enunciate clearly and separately every syllable; let us try to get the idea of English accentuation out of their heads and the idea of quantity into them; let us insist upon their marking the quantity of every syllable, as laid down in our Report, not by the pitch or the stress of the voice, but by the greater or less time for which they dwell on it; and in order to familiarise them to right habits in these points, let us make them read, read, read aloud every Latin word which they translate, as well as every entire passage they translate, so that we may get the true ring of the words and of the sentences not into their heads only, but into their throats and mouths also. I entirely agree with Professor Hardie, Miss Birrell, Professor Butcher, and other speakers in what they said as to the importance of constant and correct reading. On coming to Glasgow I learnt the method of making every translator take the Latin words, one, or two, or three at a time, as he went along, as well as begin by reading the passage as a whole; I have always done the same myself in my class, and I recommend the process confidently to every teacher. I have heard some people call this a schoolboy process; the greatest praise that you could give it. Others say it means a waste of time. It is the very opposite; it saves waste of time. It prevents slovenly work; it

exposes imperfect preparation and inaccuracy on the spot ; it trains the ear and the vocal organs, and helps to make the language living instead of dead. To read the whole passage aloud, as a preliminary, is no less essential. I have often said to a student who had read out to me a bit of Horace, Cicero, or Tacitus, "Thank you, sir ; you understand that passage thoroughly, I will trouble you no more" ; and to many another I have said, "Sit down, sir ; your reading of the passage shows that you know nothing about it." Therefore, I say, take every opportunity to make scholars bring Latin words out of their mouths, whether in translating, or in doing Latin prose ; see that they never pronounce a word incorrectly. Never pass a false quantity as venial ; and whatever else there may not be time for, let every scholar be required to learn by heart a few good passages of verse and prose, to be recited without a break from the beginning to the end.

I have thus endeavoured, Gentlemen, to put before you, from a strictly practical point of view, the importance of vigilantly and unanimously taking up, at all costs, this question of pronunciation. It seems very simple ; but human nature is fallible ; the human ear is very fallible ; and these little things I know take an infinity of trouble ; but believe me they will be found well worth that trouble. The examples given of sounds in the syllabus will, I hope, be unmis- takable. They are almost identical, as indeed our whole system is, with those just adopted by the English Classical Association ; but alas ! even the best examples may sometimes themselves be mispronounced. I see the word *pŭll* given as an example for short ŭ. I daresay many of you have heard the story of the inspector in a Scotch school who pulled up a class in a reading lesson for saying *bŭll* instead of *bŭll*. The master protested the children were quite right ; he rushed out of the room and returned triumphant with his pronouncing dictionary. "See here," he said, "the bairns are right, here is *bŭll* ; it is pronounced exactly the same as *pŭt*, *pŭsh*, *pŭll* !"

Well, there's no fighting against arguments of that kind. A

man will far more readily adopt a new creed, a new political party, or even a new wife, than change a pronunciation which has once got familiarly rooted in his throat. Therefore in Latin our motto, your motto, must be *Principiis obsta*; be inexorable at the start; never allow one syllable in the mouth of the merest beginner to be pronounced incorrectly; never permit a single false quantity to pass uncorrected; and my last word on the subject as a whole must be this:—“*Accent, Pronunciation, Quantity*, are all important; but the greatest of these is *Quantity*.”

Gentlemen, there are many other subjects which I should like to bring before your notice and hear discussed by you, but these must be reserved for future meetings. I hope that some of you will take up one by one, and deal particularly with, the various difficulties which you find hampering you in your work of teaching. We are standing now at a most interesting, a most crucial, educational moment. In Scotland the whole educational field has been mapped out as it never was mapped out before; a comprehensive scheme for the training of teachers in all subjects of knowledge has been inaugurated. The Education Department is doing its best with the materials at its disposal to do justice to every kind of school, and to every kind of subject. Many of us may remember the words of John Stuart Mill to the effect that in Education, freedom, elasticity, variety are more healthful and inspiring than even the very best bureaucratic uniformity. Some of us remember how attachment to that principle wrecked the second part of Mr W. E. Forster's Endowed Schools Bill in 1869. But we have got past that now. Events have shown that now in Scotland control and guidance can only come from one quarter, and that must be the quarter that holds the purse-strings. But even a Department need not be Prussian in its uniformity; and while it has been necessary for a body dependent on Parliament to give way in many things to the mood prevailing in that not very wise Assembly, and do much to satisfy a still less wise public opinion, I think we must feel that in recent arrangements a greater desire has

been manifested to consult those on the spot who have special knowledge and experience; to throw more responsibility upon managers and upon teachers; to make allowance for circumstances; and to endure, if not encourage, a certain elasticity in the interpretation of regulations which must be somewhat rigid and Rhadamantine in their form. The large comprehensive schemes for education of all grades which have been set on foot give great cause for hopefulness to all friends of Secondary Education; and those who, like myself, have always been more anxious to see higher education of every kind extended, rather than to champion any particular form of it, must rejoice to see the dawn of such a complete all-round national system as has been the dream of our lives.

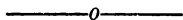
It is my great desire that this Association should set itself to do its best at this moment of educational upheaval to put in order one part—and that a very important part—of the educational field. Let us classical men do our very best to use the potent, the splendid, educational instrument in our hands in the best possible way; so as to impress the most utilitarian of utilitarians with the conviction that the subjects which we teach contain not only one essential element of all high culture, but also, if well taught, may convey a discipline to the mind, and a store to the understanding, which will be of the highest possible use to the practical man in whatever walk of life his lot may be cast. For this end, let all teachers of our subject, of whatever grade, whether in school or university, and in whatever kind of school, whether in town or country, pull heartily together in the way of giving and receiving suggestions, pointing out wants and difficulties, listening to hints of improved methods and better books, heartening each other in the work that is common to us all—that of living down the crude and spurious and facile ideas of education so prevalent to-day, and thus help to save good old Scotland from the shame, in this enlightened twentieth century, of loosening her hold of that branch of culture which, along with the reverent knowledge of the Bible, has been the foundations of her intellectual strength, and therefore of her material prosperity, in the past.

Dr HEARD, Fettes College, said everyone would feel that somebody or other should express their very great gratification at seeing Professor Ramsay in the Chair again—(applause)—and congratulate him upon the restoration of his health—a restoration so marked, that he did not think the Association had ever had from him an address fuller of intellectual vigour than that he had given them that day. (Applause.) When Professor Ramsay wrote that he wished to resign the Chair of the Association, everyone felt it would be a great disaster, and they unanimously decided to use all the influence they possessed to persuade him to continue as their president. (Applause.) They felt there was no one who had so much knowledge of the educational wants of Scotland, or who could bring so much ability to bear upon the questions with which the Association had to deal. It was a great delight to them when he consented to remain in the Chair, and it was a great pleasure to see him that day so well, and showing the same ability to direct them adequately in their discussions. (Applause.)

Methods of Teaching Latin and Greek.

By the REV. P. A. WRIGHT HENDERSON, D.D.,

Warden of Wadham College, Oxford.



I FEEL it a great honour as well as a great pleasure to address an audience of my own countrymen on the subject of Classical Education. In Oxford and in London, even after forty years, a Scotsman feels himself to be in a strange country. In Edinburgh he feels at home, especially if he has had the advantage, which the writer of this paper had, of being educated at a Scotch university, and there—at the University of Glasgow—acquiring a fair amount of Latin and Greek by the right method—that of the tolerably extensive reading of authors required from candidates for the Latin and Greek Blackstone medals. Painful though the ordeal of the examination was, I shall always remember the preparation for it as the best training I ever had. Some here perhaps may understand my allusion to the Blackstone chair and the circle of grim professors.

The apparently obvious proposition that the right way to learn a language is to read plenty of it, is the subject of this paper:

I say apparently obvious, for it has long been denied or ignored, especially in the English schools and universities.

Nothing will be said on the burning question of Greek as a necessary subject in the examinations for a degree in Arts, though indirectly any suggestions for the improvement of the teaching of Greek ought, if they are of any value, to be welcomed by those who are in favour of retaining it—*i.e.*, *real Greek*—as indispensable. But that is another story, and a somewhat exciting one, which need not be told here.

The thesis I wish to maintain is, that in the teaching of Latin and Greek there should be less grammar and more reading of Latin and Greek authors; that grammar only of the simplest and most elementary kind should be taught at the beginning, other grammar being learnt, not before the languages, but along with them and through them, I had almost said after them; or, to put it negatively, that the way not to teach a language is to make the pupil spend much time in committing to memory, in accident grammatical anomalies and monstrosities, many of them of rare occurrence; and in syntax rules of a very abstract kind, expressed in obscure technical terms, and unintelligible to the pupil because he knows little or nothing of the Latin and Greek languages.

I do not know how far this absurd method, from the abstract to the concrete, is practised in the grammar schools of Scotland, and can hardly believe that it obtains largely in this sagacious country north of the Tweed, where every one is an excellent reasoner *a priori*, and at the same time corrects his speculative tendencies by the most loyal recognition of facts. On both grounds the method hitherto prevalent, if not universal, is condemned. It is absurd in itself; it results in failure. On the first point little need be said: that grammar, especially grammar of an irrational kind, taught before the meaning of it has been brought home to the learner by some acquaintance with the language, must be useless and repulsive, seems self-evident. Do not all of us remember how we hated our irregular verbs—Latin, Greek, French, or German—and dimly felt they were doing

us no good? Boys accept things with a "sombre acquiescence," but they think more than is imagined. They feel that they ought not to be taught as parrots are taught, and we might expect that they would feel this. Both boys and parrots may be taught to repeat words and phrases which they do not understand; parrots happily attach no meaning to what they are often taught to say, but they have a clear perception that they will be rewarded for saying them; boys, likewise, attach no meaning whatever to the grammatical irregularities and abstract rules which have significance and interest for advanced scholars, but for boys have neither; yet they are not cheered, like the parrots, by the faintest hope of any pleasant or useful result from their dreary labour. What is the natural method of learning a language, the method which all of us have pursued as pupils of our mothers and our nurses?—we heard English spoken, and picked it up by imitation, regardless of grammar, unconscious indeed of its existence. How at a later stage do we learn a foreign language?—by hearing it spoken if we have opportunity, and in addition to that, or failing that, by reading as much of it as we can, aided by translations if we are wise, reserving our grammatical studies, of all except the most elementary forms, to a later stage.

Sydney Smith, in an admirable article in the *Edinburgh Review* written in the year 1826, on "Hamilton's Method of Teaching Languages," expounds and defends on *a priori* grounds a system which made little way, has indeed been hardly tried, for it ran, and still runs, counter to many prejudices in the universities and public schools, though it is essentially the same as the method by which languages are learnt by children, and by adults who have to educate themselves. The use of literal translations has been made a crime in public schools, but why should crimes be invented, and for boys? "A literal translation or any translation of a school book," he writes, "is a contraband article in English schools which a schoolmaster would instantly seize, as a custom-house officer would a barrel of gin." He goes farther, and, follow-

ing Locke, recommends the use of interlinear translations. Were I not supported by such authorities I should feel afraid to shock the feelings, as I fear I may, of some of my listeners. But I beseech them to consider that the Hamiltonian method, the natural method—for nature, not Hamilton, devised it—"begins with what all persons want, a facility of construing, and leaves every scholar to become afterwards as profound as he, or those who educate him, may choose, whereas the old method aims at making all more profound grammarians than three-fourths wish to be or nineteen-twentieths can be. One of the enormous follies of the enormously foolish education in England is that all young men—dukes, foxhunters, and merchants—are educated as if they were to keep a school, while scarcely an hour in the Hamiltonian education is lost for any variety of life. A grocer may learn enough of Latin to taste the sweets of Virgil; a cavalry man may read and understand Homer without knowing that *ἡμ* comes from *ἐω* with a rough breathing, and that it is formed by an improper reduplication."

Sydney Smith might have added that many great linguists and missionaries who have to learn many languages without waste of time and labour begin their studies with no other help than the versions of the four Gospels in many tongues, published by the great missionary societies, and learn their grammar as they read. Had they been discovered using a translation at school they would have been birched.

Surely these are the words of commonsense, sober and weighty, at present to many persons paradoxical, but like many paradoxes likely to become commonplaces in no remote future, when the fierce competition of subjects and the demand for efficiency will have compelled our successors to revise our theories, at any rate our practice, with regard to educational problems.

Let us try that theory and practice, still widely prevalent, by the test of results. What is the net result of an English public school education in the case of the prize boy and the "average boy"? for that distinction is of supreme importance in this dis-

cussion. The prize boy, who wins scholarships and exhibitions, has learnt a very considerable amount of Greek and Latin, for the simple reason that he has read a very considerable amount of Latin and Greek books; the average boy knows very little Greek and Latin for the reason that he has read very few and very small portions of books in either language. The induction is complete—much reading, considerable knowledge, little or no reading, knowledge little or none. I must be careful, in using the method of difference, when I am addressing my own countrymen, who, most of them, learn logic, and all of them are potentially logicians; but I submit the argument to them with confidence, for the failure of the “average” boy—that is failure in a large number of cases—cannot be accounted for by other causes, or a combination of them; by mere stupidity or indolence or aversion to learn *anything*, for the average boy is not destitute of brains or energy, or interest in something or another, though not commonly in grammar, and, according to the doctrine of final causes, he has been created for a purpose. Our boys are no fools; if they were, our country would not be standing where it stands now.

The writer has examined about 2000 Oxford passmen in Responsions and in Classical Moderations,—the two examinations in which the results are tested of the classical education of the average boy, who seldom aspires to more than a pass. He offers a very humble modicum of prepared portions of two or three classical authors, and professes himself ready to turn into Latin a simple piece of English prose—translation of English prose into Greek is mercifully not demanded of him. In moderations, the last classical examination which he is compelled to pass—the culmination of his classical career of ten years—he is required to translate an easy Greek and an easy Latin passage, till then unseen, into English; passages which an examiner must select with care, for the classical authors did not understand the desirability of writing passages which English passmen would be able to translate. If a reasonably accurate translation of these unprepared passages had been exacted as necessary for the certificate of having

passed Moderations, half, at least, of the candidates would not have received that certificate. As it was, about one-third failed, one-third just escaped disaster, one-third did well or fairly well. Most of the candidates had spent nine or ten years in learning Greek and Latin, and had in many cases acquired an almost complete ignorance of these quite intelligible languages, along with much dislike to both of them. This is no exaggerated statement made by an enemy of classical education, or of the public schools, but rather the lament of a friend and admirer of both.

Such a failure would not be tolerated anywhere except in patient England, nor even there but for the fact that a public school education is, on other sides of it, admirable physically, morally, and politically. The English schoolboy at eighteen or nineteen is a fine young fellow—but why should he not know some Latin and Greek?

Whose fault is it? not his in ordinary cases; not the fault of his teachers—the schoolmasters—a class of men whose energy and devotion to their work and ever present sense of the dignity and obligations of their high calling it would be impertinent in me to praise; nor can the cause of failure be any deficiency in the subject matter—the classics—which are the key to literature and history and politics, and might be made interesting even to the average boy.

By the exhaustive method we reach the conclusion that the fault must be in the way by which classics have been taught—and the case against the method has been stated, however inadequately, from the *a priori* point of view, viz., that reading, not grammar divorced from reading, is the path to language.

How is it that irrational or inordinate grammar, and the old method generally, are maintained and defended? I ought to say, were maintained and defended, for thanks to many things, among them to discussions held in the Southern Classical Association at the meetings of May and of January last, light is breaking into dark places.

In the first place, the long tradition which arose and was

continued in times when there were no materials for education save the classics cannot be expected to yield at once, or quickly, to criticism, or even to necessity; still it is coming to be felt that grammar has now very formidable competition in modern languages, in modern history, and, the most formidable of all, in natural science.

Further, certain phrases and metaphors have long misled us. The words "good grounding," "smattering," have been used to justify the teaching of minute and irrational grammar as a preparation for reading the classics. Certainly education of any kind ought to be based on secure foundations; but what kind of foundation is the minute knowledge of exceptions rarely met with, and very repulsive? That is like the broken bottles and rubbish on which jerrymandering builders set the houses of many unlucky artisans. What better grounding could there be for an education in Latin and Greek than acquaintance with them through reading them? This simple and natural method is said to give the pupil only a smattering. Is not the usual grammar only a smattering—that is, something superficial, but also useless and distasteful, whereas a smattering of Homer, or Sophocles, or Horace, or Dante, obtained by the help of a translation has been to many persons a distinct intellectual acquisition and the source of pleasure of the highest kind, and it might be the same for boys. Indeed, the word grammar itself has given rise to fallacies. The respect due to a real science, to philology—of which grammar is an important part, worthy of the devotion of great scholars—is wrongly claimed for a spurious imitation of it, spurious because unmeaning to those who learn it—to a philologer a highly irregular verb is significant, fascinating; to a schoolboy it is a dismal mystery.

And, last and most misleading, most perniciously effective of all of the arguments by which the old method is now defended, is the fatuous assertion that difficulties as such, without reference to their results, are good for boys, as if there were not other ways of distressing boys according to their deserts and for their good.

Life, even in youth, is full enough of difficulties without our adding to the troubles of these innocents, labour as repulsive and hardly as productive as that once done by criminals on the treadmill.

I would fain hear from some of the masters of the old grammar or high schools what their method is—whether they agree with an eminent Harrow master, Edward Bowen, of whom Mr James Bryce, himself a scholar, writes, apparently with approval, that “for grammatical minutiae, for learning rules by heart, and, indeed, for the old style of grammar teaching generally he had an unconcealed contempt. He thought it unkind and wasteful to let a boy go on puzzling over difficulties of language in an author, and permitted, under restrictions, the use of English translations, or, as boys call them, ‘cribs.’”

The time of the Association is precious. I would fain have read quotations from Milton’s “Tractate on Education,” the general tenor of which is in favour of my contention; from Locke’s “Treatise on Education;” and from Sydney Smith. The practical consensus of a great scholar as well as poet, a great philosopher, a great wit as well as a man of the most powerful commonsense, is surely very significant, and entitled to serious consideration.

Such, gentlemen, is my case imperfectly stated: let me add that I am well aware how easy it is to criticise, to point to results without mention of difficulties in work which one has not done oneself, but my apology is the desire to raise discussion, or at least to suggest matter for reflection.

I may assume that all here are friends of classical education. It is on its trial; it has many formidable competitors claiming a place in the curriculum of the future, already half established in the curriculum of the present; modern languages and literature, history, modern as well as ancient, and, most formidable competitor of all, natural science.

Classical education may be compared to the mother in the Russian story, who, pursued by wolves, hungry and ferocious,

throws out of her sledge to her pursuers the weakest and puniest of her babies and saves the rest and herself. Irrational grammar is the baby, and must be thrown to the wolves, or rather it is a changeling of worse than dubious origin, substituted in the cradle for real and rational grammar by some malignant agency. Let us imitate her. We shall not feel the loss as we trust she did.

Professor HARDIE, Edinburgh, in proposing a vote of thanks to Dr Henderson, said the ripe wisdom and quiet humour of the paper would not surprise those who knew the Warden of Wadham College. They were certainly deeply indebted to him for coming so far at this period of the session to read them a paper. (Applause.) It was a peculiarly appropriate paper at this time, because no doubt their methods of teaching were undergoing change. Personally, he was not an "antigrammarians." (Laughter and applause.) He was not even an out-and-out enemy of irregular verbs. Many of them were of such common occurrence that it was absolutely necessary to know them—both in Latin and Greek. Perhaps, however, an effort should be made in the direction indicated in the paper. He proposed a hearty vote of thanks to Dr Henderson for his paper. (Applause.)

The PRESIDENT said it was almost impossible not to have sympathy with the main contention of the paper, that "irrational" grammar should be dropped. The crux of the matter lay, however, in the definition of "irrational." How much were they to throw over? They could not throw over grammar as a whole. They were all agreed that they should aim more at reading and deal less with the technicalities of grammar. He had reason to know that even in Scotland there were still in use methods of teaching that were merely mechanical, but thinking teachers had long recognised that reform was necessary, and the most useful question for them to debate was, how far was that reform to go?

He did not agree with Dr Henderson in the estimate he made of the value of the attainments of the ordinary passman. In Scotland they knew more about the passman than they did in England. The English universities were distinguished for their honours men, the universities of Scotland were more distinguished for their passmen. He did not even agree with Dr Henderson's views about irregular verbs. (Applause.) He thought there was a great charm about them. (Laughter.) He should greatly like to hear the views of practical teachers—how far they thought they ought to go in the way of lightening their use of grammar, and how soon they might venture to bring their pupils face to face with the charm and potency of ancient literature. (Applause.)

Mr WM. MAYBIN, Ayr, said he did not think there was so great difference as was supposed between the two views that had been expressed. There seemed to be some confusion of terms and of times. Many of those who decried the teaching of grammar referred to those days of forty years ago when grammar was taught for its own sake, and when it was thought a proper thing to spend a year on grammar, before seeing the *ipsissima verba* of the classical authors. That was a man of straw that did not need to be knocked down to-day. (Applause.) They did not nowadays ask boys to commit to memory—for that was what seemed to be meant—so many inches of grammar. In discussing this matter, they ought first to face the question,—what was their object in teaching Latin and Greek? Were they aiming first at a knowledge of ancient times? or were they educating first and educating *through* the training that was to be had in the examination of these ancient records? He thought their first object was to educate, and for his part he would not teach one page of grammar, if by that was meant committing grammar to memory. But they could not afford to neglect grammar. Grammar was simply the generalisation of the expressions found in the books they proposed to read, and they could not afford to neglect either the generalisa-

tions themselves, or the methods by which they were reached. To take one instance: He would take one tense (the present, say) of the active voice of the verb *λείπω*. After the pupil had read it, he would ask him to note the resemblances and the differences in the eight forms contained in this tense. He would ask him what these had in common, and where they differed. From beginning to end of that simple exercise, the boy is perfectly interested, because he has been thinking all the time. He has been discovering resemblances and differences—he has not been doing Latin and Greek at all *per se*. He is discovering things that agree and things that differ—(applause)—and, by this logical process, he arrives at the cardinal distinction between Stem and Inflection. By-and-by he will learn that these inflections are not the earliest forms. But, in the meantime, he learns all that is necessary; and he learns it not as an exercise of memory only or mainly, but as an intellectual exercise. And, having once learned these few inflections, he is able, under the guidance of course of a skilled teacher, to form all the parts of the verb *λείπω* or of the verb *τίθημι*: he does not learn them from the grammar; he deduces them himself, and, having so deduced them, he turns up his grammar and finds, to his satisfaction, that the grammar is correct. Not much grammar is necessary for reading Greek; but so much as is necessary should be thorough. If grammar is taught on these principles a great many so-called “irregularities” vanish. Take *λαμβάνω*. It was quite a regular verb. There was not a single part of it which, if the teacher had done his work properly, he would not have enabled the pupil to find out for himself. There was hardly a verb that was irregular, in the sense that you could not refer it to the previous principles that the pupil had learned.

He refused to tolerate “irrational” grammar, or “irrational” anything. Why should grammar be fathered with all the absurdities of the irrational people who made it irrational? He maintained that grammar should not be learned, but taught, so as to get at the underlying principles. (Applause.)

Professor BURNET, St Andrews, said he seemed to be always talking on this subject, and it would be remembered he had himself raised in a paper some of the points now under discussion. What seemed to him to come out most clearly from the paper was the vital necessity of getting more reading—larger masses of reading. His experience was that his present students did not have the idea of reading large quantities, even to the same extent as the students of ten years ago, and that was a serious state of matters. When he was a student in Edinburgh, they read larger masses still. When he was in the Honours Greek Class some of them read all the plays of Euripides. He did not think that sort of thing was quite as common now as it was then. If it was grammar that was standing in the way, let them get rid of grammar. He thought the Warden had overestimated the amount of it taught in the schools, and a great deal of the condemnation he had passed on grammar teaching failed to touch what was being actually done. Perhaps there might still be a little too much of it. Personally, he confessed, like the President, to a fondness for irregular verbs. He thought there was a delightful suggestion of Bohemianism about them—(laughter),—but, perhaps, they learned too many of them. The number of essential irregular verbs was somewhere between twenty and thirty. If an ordinary boy was told that this amount of purely mechanical work was to be done, he thought he would accept that view of the matter and set to work and do it. (Applause.)

Professor HARROWER, Aberdeen, said this subject had been before the Association more than once, and he always wanted to finish up the discussion with a definite request for an answer to the question—what could be thrown overboard? He thought Mr Maybin had done a great service by showing that schoolmasters were not so very irrational. There had at one time been far too many lists of irregularities learned, but he was perfectly certain that that sort of thing had largely ceased, and that intelligence was being displayed in the teaching of grammar. (Applause.) Further,

the question should be asked and answered—what was their object in teaching the Classics? Was the literature alone the end? Was there not an end served in the very process of learning? Was there not a great deal done for the boy who mastered “*qui* with the subjunctive?” (Applause.)

Professor PHILLIMORE, Glasgow, said he thought it was of no more use to tell a student to commit a grammar to memory than it would be to tell him to commit a lexicon to memory. The things were exactly alike. The pupil consulted his lexicon; he should consult his grammar in the same way, and he required to be taught to use both books intelligently for himself. If the question were put as Mr Maybin had put it, which comes first—reading or grammar? he would answer quite distinctly—reading first. Grammar was distinctly an Honours subject. A grammar like Roby's was a philosophical treatise. When a student had done a great deal of reading he would get great instruction from such books, but in the early stages (he thought) grammar ought to be lightened as much as possible. (Applause.)

Professor DAVIES, Glasgow, said he had been greatly delighted to hear from a practical schoolmaster that boys could be made to teach themselves grammar. He thought Mr Maybin's remarks were an extremely valuable contribution to the discussion.

With regard to the amount of grammar which could be safely thrown overboard he thought they had already a reasonable basis—for Greek, at least—in Dr Gunion Rutherford's book, “*First Greek Accidence*.” He thought there was very little in that book that they could safely get rid of.

Mr ALEXANDER GEMMELL, Greenock, said he had been greatly disappointed at the attitude towards grammar which had been taken up by the meeting. He thought they would do well to leave this attack on grammar to the Modern Languages Association. He thought they should hold fast to the teaching of grammar, and

even allow that to be the one feature of difference between the teaching of classical and of modern languages. They should keep clear in their minds whether by "grammar" they meant accidence or syntax. While it was a mistake to teach syntax before reading was begun, it was equally a mistake to begin reading before the accidence had been done. They all wished to read as much as possible. How would they best succeed? They could not read quickly unless they could quickly discover the forms of the words they were reading. They should hold fast to the generalisations of experience as contained in the grammar. The desired end would be reached all the more quickly after a foundation of grammar had been laid. Of course, *ἀπαξ λεγόμενα* should not be taught, but even the Leaving Certificate people had stopped asking these things. (Laughter.)

Miss AINSLIE, Edinburgh, said a child might begin one language at the age of eight, and another at the age of twelve or thirteen. She thought it was perfectly obvious that, in the former case, the less formal grammar the better. But if Latin were begun at twelve or later, the pupil had already a certain logical equipment, and would crave and welcome a more logical treatment. There were pupils with minds so made that they would never rest satisfied with a teaching of grammar based entirely on the text. Such grammar was, she thought, bound to be invertebrate grammar, and something more structural was to many minds an absolute necessity. (Applause.)

Dr HEARD, Fettes College, said they were all agreed that there were certain things in grammar which must be known quite accurately, else the pupil's mind was in a flabby condition. They were also agreed that, not so long ago, more than necessary was required. That had been given up, but something that was quite accurate and fixed was absolutely necessary if the pupil was to have a hold of the language.

With regard to translations, he did not think they would dis-

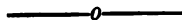
agree about the use of translations. But there was an abuse of translations, and the average boy did not use them to enable him to understand his author, but to enable him to get rid of his author. While great help should be given to boys to let them get over a great deal of ground, the use of translations made mental effort unknown. (Applause.)

Replying on the discussion, Dr WRIGHT HENDERSON said the remarks made had been very valuable, as they represented exactly what he had come to hear, viz., the Scottish view and practice in the matter of grammar teaching. He did not wish to offend any Englishman present, but he was bound to say that the discussion had illustrated the strong practical sense of his own countrymen. The Scottish passman was certainly better than what they had in the south. His own view still was, that while it was absolutely necessary to know *εἰμί* and to be able to decline *ἐγώ*, the knowledge of a language was acquired by reading plenty of it. (Applause.)

Roman Remains in Scotland, With Special Reference to Some Recent Discoveries.

BY GEORGE MACDONALD, LL.D.,

Assistant Secretary, Scotch Education Department.



“**A**NTIQUITIES,” says Bacon, “may be looked upon as the planks of a shipwreck, which industrious and wise men gather and preserve from the deluge of time.” This picturesque (if not very coherent) metaphor was selected by George Chalmers as a motto for his “Caledonia.” Whether he would have wished it to be regarded as a serious description of his own work is very doubtful. To judge from the preface, at all events, his aim was more ambitious. So far as concerns that portion of his book which he himself was inclined to consider the most important, he definitely claims to have woven “the whole of the Roman transactions in Caledonia into a connected body of genuine history during four interesting centuries.” These words were written in 1807. In

the interval a great change has come over the spirit of archaeological investigation, a change whose results have been nowhere more striking than in the very department where Chalmers believed he had attained finality. Through the application of the process with which science has familiarised us—observation, comparison, induction—there is gradually being substituted for the phantasmagoria of the “Caledonia” a picture whose outlines, if still faint and hard to interpret, are year by year growing in distinctness and in significance.

Chalmers represented the extreme development of the Monkbarns school of antiquarian research. He endeavoured to solve by the aid of written record, or what he believed to be such, historical problems, the real clue to which could only be furnished by methods of which he knew nothing—the methods of scientific archaeology. His mantle descended upon Robert Stuart. Stuart’s “Caledonia Romana,” however, is a much more valuable contribution to the subject than the book it was destined to supersede. The author has a real appreciation of the sort of evidence on which any sound fabric of knowledge would require to be built, and his descriptions and illustrations of actual Roman remains can still be consulted with profit. In spite of his continued belief in the authenticity of the spurious Richard of Cirencester, he is more cautious than Chalmers in the conclusions he draws, while his genuine enthusiasm disarms criticism, notwithstanding the odd effects that are sometimes produced by his proneness to indulge in giddy flights of rhetoric. After the flood there followed the ebb. Over-credulity engendered scepticism. Twenty or twenty-five years ago careful students of Scottish antiquities were disposed to be very chary of accepting almost any of the statements popularly current in regard to Roman influence in North Britain. But, if there was scepticism, it was scepticism in the best and most fruitful sense, the determination to believe nothing that was not capable of demonstration, to prove all things, and to hold fast what was found to be true. This spirit was of the greatest service in prompting the advance that stands to the credit of the present

generation of investigators. From some points of view that advance may fairly be characterised as revolutionary. It has been conditioned mainly by two factors.

To begin by a return to Bacon's metaphor, if the older antiquaries often showed a praiseworthy diligence in collecting the derelict planks, their conception of the design of the original ship was sadly wanting in accuracy. The fault was not their own. Their copies of the "*Agricola*" of Tacitus were generally well-thumbed; they had read the relevant parts of the Augustan Historians; they had followed the march of Severus through the pages of Dio Cassius; perhaps, like the discoverer of the Kaim of Kinprunes, they could even quote Claudian. The more zealous of their number had certainly studied Polybius and Hyginus, and were learned in the "principles of castrametation." But all this could not carry them very far. Indeed, not a little of it was positively misleading. The inquirer of to-day is in a much more advantageous position. Thanks to the labour of a host of workers, the historical setting of the period concerned has been to a large extent recovered. The epigraphical researches of Mommsen and those whom he inspired have shed a most instructive light upon the story of the Roman Empire and upon the details of Roman provincial government. So far as Scotland is concerned, it is (for reasons that will presently appear) the administration of the Army that is chiefly important, and above all, the system of frontier defence.

Within the Roman provinces themselves there was little or no place for a military element. Garrison towns were practically unknown. Agriculture, trade, and commerce pursued the even tenor of their way, undisturbed save for the friendly attentions of the tax-gatherer. Where civilisation marched with barbarism, it was otherwise. Nowhere could the boundary of the Empire have satisfied Euclid's definition of a straight line. It was usually a broad zone, sometimes as much as two or three hundred miles wide. On the innermost edge of this were the legionary fortresses, where the real fighting strength of the Army was concentrated

The troops that lay in leaguer there were within ready call of the provincial Governor, if trouble were threatened inside the limits of his domain. But it was towards the foe in the outer world that their faces were chiefly turned. If operations on a great scale were afoot, if field works of a more than usually extensive character had to be carried out, their services were requisitioned. The Roman Government, however, could not afford to regard its legionaries too lightly; and so for the ordinary rough-and-tumble encounters, from which certain of the frontier districts were never entirely free, a less costly class of soldier was employed. These auxiliaries, as they were called, occupied that part of the frontier zone that stretched beyond the "stations" of the legions. The district in question was generally covered by a network of military roads, while all the points of strategic importance were commanded by forts which could accommodate one or more regiments of auxiliaries, although sometimes held by a handful of men. These sites, however, were not mere forts in the modern sense of the term. They were permanent military settlements, and attached to each were quarters for women, children, traders, and time-expired soldiers. In the normal course of things, one and the same regiment might remain on the same spot, not only for generations, but for centuries, the gaps in the ranks being often filled by lads whose fathers had themselves seen service, and who, if they survived the perils of campaigning, would in their turn settle down to spend their declining years under the shadow of the walls within which the better part of their lives had been spent.

Applying these general principles to North Britain, we find great legionary fortresses at York and at Chester. Beyond these, therefore, as far as the arm of Rome could reach, we should expect to discover military roads and the *castella* of the auxiliaries. And these are what, as a matter of fact, we do meet with, although at two points a special phenomenon confronts us in the shape of a fortified line extending from sea to sea. The two fortified lines, the "walls" of Hadrian and Pius, may for the present be left out

of reckoning. Their special character would require separate treatment, and, for our immediate purpose, no harm will be done if we regard them simply as parts of the general scheme of defence. The archæologist, then, has learned what he ought to look for. But he has also learned how to look for it, and this is the second of the two factors that have conditioned the advance that was spoken of above.

One of the first to employ the spade as an instrument of scientific archæology was Colonel Stoffel, a distinguished officer of engineers, who carried out for the Emperor Napoleon III. a series of investigations directed towards ascertaining the precise location of the camps erected by Julius Cæsar during his campaigns in Gaul. The value of Stoffel's researches was largely due to the application he made of the principle that, if the surface of the earth as consolidated by geological forces be once disturbed by the hand of man, the traces of that disturbance cannot be obliterated within the limits of historic time. In other words, it is a comparatively simple matter to trace and to clear the line of a ditch that has been filled up for centuries. Systematic excavation, too, had long been practised in the East, in Greece, in Asia Minor, in Assyria, and in Egypt. There it was originally directed towards the recovery of actual objects, the possible harvest of which was known to be rich. Gradually and inevitably it became more and more methodical as its full potentialities were realised. The honour of being the first to use it in connection with Roman remains in Scotland rests with the Glasgow Archæological Society. In 1890 a small committee, all of whom, with one exception, are fortunately still among us, was deputed to examine by actual excavation the structure of the Antonine Wall. The most noteworthy result of their labours was the demonstration by Dr George Neilson of its "cæspiticious" character. It turned out to be, not a mere mound of earth as had previously been supposed, but a regular wall, skilfully and carefully built of layers of cut turf resting upon a solid stone foundation. The volume in which the committee presented their detailed report marked an epoch in

another way. In an appendix from the pen of Mr Haverfield an attempt was made to use the records of coin "finds" as a means of fixing the time limits of the Roman occupation. His conclusion was at first sight surprising, but it is fully borne out by what has come to light since he wrote. It seems practically certain that the forts in Southern Scotland were abandoned before the close of the second century A.D.

The work which Glasgow had so well begun was soon afterwards taken up and carried on in admirable fashion by the Society of Antiquaries of Scotland. A beginning was made in 1895 with the fort of Birrens in Dumfriesshire. Since then there have followed in regular succession Ardoch near Greenloaning; Birrenswark in Annandale; Lyne, close to Peebles; Camelon, hard by the great iron-works at Falkirk; Inchtuthil, to the north of Perth; Castlecary and Rough Castle on the Antonine Vallum; and now, most important of all, Newstead, to the east of Melrose. In the Society's "Proceedings" there will be found reports of the results obtained at each of these sites, except the last named, where work is still in progress. Here we must be content to note one or two salient points. Birrens was fruitful in inscriptions, while the plan of the interior, skilfully laid down by Mr Barbour of Dumfries, has been of the utmost service in similar explorations elsewhere. At Ardoch, where there is probably still much to discover, a good deal was learned about the manner in which the timber buildings inside the walls of the forts were constructed. Birrenswark yielded a group of sling bullets of lead, indubitably Roman. This find was specially noteworthy. Missiles of that sort were not used in the Roman army after the close of the first century A.D. It follows that Agricola's troops were at Birrenswark. Possibly the bullets, many of which bear unmistakable traces of impact, had been expended in an assault on a British stronghold on the hilltop. At all events, this was the first point where the narrative of Tacitus was touched. As historical evidence, it was worth bushels of idle speculation regarding the possible position of "Mons Grampius." Lyne furnished a most interesting example

of an elaborately built strong-room or cellar, lying beneath the house of the commandant, doubtless the safe of the regimental bank. From Camelon there came a mass of objects illustrative of the daily life of the troops and their followers. The enamelled brooches and ornaments were particularly characteristic. And again there was a suggestion of Agricola, for among the many examples of Samian ware were a few which belong to types that are usually assigned to the first century of our era. Inchtuthil, in one respect, stands alone among the sites hitherto dealt with. It was not a *castellum*, but a camp; its area covered no less than fifty-six acres, and it must have been intended to hold an army of perhaps two legions. It thus forms no part of the permanent defensive system, but is rather a relic of some period of active campaigning. The range of baths found in close association with it was singularly striking. Castlecary was the earliest of the Vallum forts to be opened up, and the massive stonework of its northern defence proved to be one of the most impressive examples of Roman masonry that have come to light in Northern Europe. Rough Castle has always been distinguished for the formidable appearance presented by its ramparts, and the most conspicuous novelty that excavation revealed was the series of pits which covered the approach from the north. They spoke plainly of the fierceness of the attacks to which the garrison must have known that they were liable. At the same time, they provided an excellent illustration of a well-known passage in Cæsar's description of the siege of Alesia.

This retrospect of what has been accomplished would be incomplete without a further reference. At another of the Vallum forts, Bar Hill, above Kilsyth, Mr Whitelaw of Gartshore has carried on, upon his own account, a most successful series of excavations. The report, published only the other day, describes in detail the results that have been achieved. In the words of that report, "archæology has for the first time been brought into immediate certain contact with the handiwork of Agricola," and fresh inferences as to the character of his "conquest" have been

suggested. By far the larger body of the remains, however, belongs to the second century, that is, to the period when the Wall of Antoninus Pius was permanently garrisoned by regiments of auxiliaries. The fort they occupied on Bar Hill covered an area of about three acres. It had walls of turf, crowned at intervals by wooden towers. In the interior, the prætorium, the baths, and one or two other buildings were constructed of stone and roofed with red tiles, whilst the barracks of the soldiery were built of wood and thatched. Outside the wall, probably immediately to the east, lay an annexe in which the camp followers of various kinds were housed. This little colony of perhaps 1000 souls or more must have subsisted there for thirty or forty years looking across the swamps of the isthmus towards the hills of "ancient Caledon." The relics of their stay are quite exceptionally numerous, and enable us to form a good general idea of the manner of life of these early visitors to our shores. They were evidently a plain, practical, hard-working set of people. There was little or no trace of luxury, or even of the degree of refinement to which some of the Camelon "finds" testify, and of which we have such convincing evidence at Newstead.

Newstead stands upon a high bluff overlooking the Tweed Valley, about a mile and a half to the east of Melrose. It has long been known that there was once a Roman settlement there. An inscribed altar was ploughed up towards the close of the eighteenth century, and another was discovered in digging a drain a good many years later. In 1846 a large number of Roman remains came to light in the course of operations connected with the construction of the North British Railway. So completely, however, had all traces of the fort been obliterated, that when the work of excavation was commenced in 1905 there was absolutely nothing to indicate where or how the search ought to begin. Exploratory trenches were cut, and in a few weeks enough had been found to justify the conclusion that Newstead must have been for a considerable period one of the most important Roman stations in North Britain. This conclusion is daily receiving

more and more ample confirmation. The fortifications enclosed an area of some 14 acres, sufficient to provide comfortable accommodation, not for one auxiliary regiment, but for two or three. Outside there were at least two extensive annexes, one of which contained a suite of baths occupying a space 300 feet long by 100 feet broad. The buildings were mainly of stone, and the formidable defences had included a great wall of squared masonry nearly 8 feet thick. The almost entire disappearance of the stones can only be explained on the supposition that the ruins of the Roman fort were utilised as a quarry for many generations. Indeed, Mr James Curle, the value of whose services in connection with the excavations it would be impossible to overestimate, has made it highly probable that Newstead furnished the material subsequently employed for Melrose Abbey and its adjuncts.

The plan of the fort, so far as it has yet emerged, appears to follow conventional lines. The centre is occupied by the headquarters building, usually called the *Prætorium*. It is of the normal form, and on either side of it there has been a granary or storehouse, with buttressed walls. To the south of this group is a large courtyard house, probably the residence of the commandant. The portions to the east and west of the *Prætorium* are occupied by blocks of barracks for the men. While the plan in its general outlines is conventional, there are features of special interest attaching to it. The barrack blocks, for instance, instead of being (as they usually are) long buildings divided by partitions, were apparently broken up into a series of small stone huts, about 15 feet wide by 30 feet deep, separated from one another by the space of about a foot or two. Then in front of the *Prætorium* was a large drill hall, a provision common enough on the German "*Limes*," but not met with hitherto in Britain. Lastly, both the interior buildings and the ditches and rampart that defend them afford unmistakable evidence of three, or possibly four, different occupations. The solution of the various problems which this evidence suggests is far from easy. But one point which is already tolerably clear is that the position was originally

fortified before the end of the first century A.D.—that is, during the invasion of Agricola. It will be a much more difficult task to determine under what circumstances the successive reoccupations or reconstructions of the fort took place. If we are ever to get beyond the stage of vague conjecture, it can only be through a rigid scrutiny of the objects found. Failing the discovery of really important inscriptions—a piece of good fortune which is to be hoped for rather than expected—everything will depend upon a careful study of the smaller objects, such as pottery, fibulæ, and coins. It is as yet far too early to attempt to formulate definite conclusions. The excavations are but half completed. Still, we may venture upon an illustration of what must be the method of procedure.

The number of coins already found amounts to not far short of 150, a total largely in excess of that yielded by any other Scottish site. It must be remembered that these are not pieces of money that were concealed or hidden away. They have been picked up here and there within the area of occupation, and it follows that they represent the casual losses of the garrison and their associates. Their value as evidence of date is, of course, largely enhanced thereby. For our immediate purpose it may be well to limit ourselves to the bronze. No gold has been found, and, owing to a variety of reasons, silver enjoyed a comparatively long period of circulation, and therefore affords a less secure basis for argument. Taking, then, the bronze coins that have so far been identified, we find that those of the Flavian Emperors actually form a majority of the whole. There is a stray “second brass” of Nero, whose reign came to an end some twelve years before Agricola can have reached the Tweed. It represents an accidental survival; but in its solitude it is useful as giving an indication of what was probably, under normal circumstances, an extreme limit of circulation for bronze. Beginning with the Flavian period, we have no fewer than eighteen coins of Vespasian, nine of Titus, and fourteen of Domitian. Passing to the first half of the second century A.D., we get twelve of Trajan and fourteen

of Hadrian. In the Antonine age Pius and his wife Faustina Senior are represented by four each, while there are two of Marcus Aurelius and two of Faustina Junior. No later emperor figures in the list at all, although among the silver coins there is a single denarius of Crispina, the consort of Commodus.

In what general directions do these statistics point? To begin with, it is plain that Newstead was the scene of much bustle and stir during the earliest Roman invasion of Scotland. Hitherto the balance of opinion has been in favour of the supposition that Agricola made his main advance starting from a base at Chester and following a line that would lead him into Annandale. The size and importance of Newstead, however, distinctly tend to show that he set out from York and followed an easterly route. After all, such a proceeding would be intelligible on various grounds. For one thing, it would afford him greater facilities for keeping in touch with his fleet. Further, the large number of coins of Domitian, one or two of them in almost mint condition, suggests the possibility that Newstead continued to be held after the Roman forces were withdrawn from the Forth and Clyde isthmus as a result of the order for Agricola's recall. At all events, it seems beyond doubt that there was a strong garrison there during the first half of the second century, that is, prior to 140 A.D., when Lollius Urbicus once again made a fortified base along the line from Forth to Clyde. If we could penetrate the darkness that enshrouds the war which we know to have taken place in Britain under Hadrian, we might find that no inconspicuous part was played by the fort at the foot of the Eildons. We can at least readily understand that it would be highly useful as an advanced post during the operations connected with the building of the English wall. To judge from the evidence now under consideration, its importance was considerably diminished after the erection of the Antonine Vallum. Although it was still occupied during a portion of the reign of Commodus, it would appear as if the number of troops holding it had then been comparatively small. Possibly the building or restoration of Birrens, which we

know from an inscription to have taken place in 158 A.D., may indicate that for some reason, political or strategic, the western route to Caledonia had become more important than the eastern—a circumstance which would account for the relative decline of Newstead. But there seems to be no doubt that the wave of pressure from the north which led to the abandonment of the Antonine Vallum in the reign of Commodus, overwhelmed Newstead as it swept southward to dash itself against the barrier raised by Hadrian. And when it ebbed, the frontier line was permanently changed. Newstead was not reoccupied. The Roman defeat was, therefore, more severe, or at least more lasting in its effects, than any check that had been met with since the eagles first crossed the Cheviots.

The inferences drawn in the preceding paragraph are, it may be repeated, tentative only. They are based upon but one class of evidence, and even within the limits of that class the material is not yet complete. They are put forward simply as an illustration of the manner in which light must be looked for. If anything like certainty is to be attained, more digging is indispensable. There are, of course, many objects which are capable of being utilised for the purpose of determining dates. It is true that, apart from dated inscriptions, coins are more useful in this respect than anything else, being themselves datable within definite limits. Still, other articles (such as fibulæ and pottery) may, if properly interpreted, be very helpful. And, fortunately, it is not in respect of coins alone that the finds at Newstead have been noteworthy. The collection as a whole is extraordinarily rich. If the search can be vigorously prosecuted, further discoveries may be confidently looked for, and, in Mr Curle's capable hands, a careful examination of the entire mass of remains is certain to lead to conclusions that will mark a great advance. One or two of the sets of objects that have been found stand out conspicuously as certain to attract the notice of students of the Roman period all the world over. The pottery and the shoes might be paralleled readily enough, but it may be doubted whether any single museum elsewhere contains

such an impressive display of Roman military accoutrements and of Roman tools as is now displayed in the National Museum of Antiquities in Edinburgh.

The helmets, for instance, will catch the attention at once. The two most perfect among them are rarities of the first degree. One is of iron, and is provided with a visor in the form of a human face, the headpiece being embossed with locks of curling hair and furnished with an attachment for a plume; the style of the work is admirable for the period, being distinctly in advance of that displayed in the well-known Ribchester helmet, now in the British Museum. The other is a helmet of brass, richly embossed with figures in high relief; it had probably been worn by a cavalry soldier, and on the back of the neckpiece is punctured what appears to be the owner's name. The last-named feature is characteristic also of a group of four pieces of bronze armour, which were perhaps intended for the protection of the shoulders and arms, and which were in all probability attached to the leather jerkin of the wearer. In this case the soldier's name was "Senecio," and the number of his troop or company is also given, an arrangement that is curiously suggestive of the identification card of our modern army system. An example of the same practice is furnished by eight circular pieces of bronze and a heart-shaped disc, which were doubtless once fastened to the front of a leather tunic; each of these has scratched upon it the name "Domitius Atticus."

What adds immensely to the value of the finds just mentioned is the excellence of their condition. The brass helmet, for instance, but for the fact that it has lost its leather lining, is as fresh and serviceable as it was seventeen or eighteen centuries ago. This astonishing circumstance is explained by the nature of the hiding-place in which it was concealed. While objects of interest have been recovered from almost every quarter of the area explored, the most prolific sources of supply have been fourteen pits or wells outside the camp, varying in depth from ten to thirty feet. In nearly all of them the bottom was covered by a thick deposit of

black earth intermingled with decayed vegetable and animal matter. The lowest stratum usually contained a few articles of iron, bronze, wood, or leather, which had been absolutely protected from atmospheric influences, and thus saved from the corrosion and decay which would otherwise have inevitably overtaken them. In looking at some of the finer of the iron tools, it is indeed difficult to believe that they were not made a year or two ago, so fresh do they seem. The two pairs of blacksmith's tongs, several of the great hammers, a mattock, and at least one of the axes would be fit for use to-morrow, and the same might be said of the massive *dolabrae*, or pioneers' axes, which illustrate with peculiar aptness a detail of Roman equipment hitherto best known from the sculptures on Trajan's Column. Nor can one fail to be struck by the resemblance which many of the tools present to their modern counterparts. Besides those already mentioned, there are chisels, gouges, a pick, a smith's "drift," and two staple mandrels. Very interesting also are two complete querns of Andernach stone with their spindles and iron mountings complete, and four scythe blades, closely resembling the very implement which in this country succeeded the hook, to be in its turn displaced by the reaping-machine.

Among the wooden objects are a set of tent-pegs, an oak bucket with its iron handle, and two chariot wheels, which are constructed in the same fashion as the beautiful example lately discovered at Bar Hill. It is, unfortunately, doubtful how far it will be possible to prevent the wood from deteriorating now that it has been exposed to the air. The tent-pegs are already on exhibition, but the wheels and the bucket are still under preservative treatment. Besides the two complete wheels, there are the iron hub-rings of no fewer than twenty-nine others. And these are by no means the only articles associated with the horse. Bridle-bits, portions of harness, and a stirrup are all laid out in the cases of the museum. So far, too, as animal remains are concerned, it is the horse that claims the foremost place. Seventeen skulls and a very large number of bones have been discovered. They have

been subjected to a close scrutiny by Professor Cossar Ewart, who has already made an important communication to the Royal Society regarding them. From a biological point of view their discovery turns out to be of quite exceptional interest, as furnishing reliable evidence regarding the different breeds of horses to be found in Europe 2000 years ago. Looked at historically, they fully confirm the testimony of the inscription which was found at Newstead in the eighteenth century, and which went to show that a regiment of cavalry had formed part of the Roman garrison there.

When Newstead is exhausted, there are other sites and other aspects of the problem still waiting for the spade. But Newstead is far from being exhausted yet, and the most urgent duty is to finish it. Only within the past few days the excavators have lighted on a fresh series of pits and wells, the clearing out of which is being looked forward to with keen expectation. The drain upon the financial resources of the Society of Antiquaries has, of course, been heavy. In France or in Germany the work they have been doing would have been carried on under Government supervision and at Government expense. In Britain we proceed in a more haphazard way. We rely mainly upon the liberality of private individuals. In this particular line of research Scotland has, in the immediate past, been fortunate in the possession of generous benefactors like Mr Whitelaw of Gartshore and the Hon. John Abercromby. But so much remains to do that every penny that can be secured for Newstead is of value. As Sir Herbert Maxwell points out in his recent appeal, those who see their way to subscribe may rest assured that the funds are being most carefully and economically applied. In the meantime, it would be difficult to devise a stronger stimulus to public interest than the collection now displayed in the National Museum of Antiquities in Edinburgh. It is far from complete, as there is still much at Melrose, but it includes many of the more important objects, and a visit to it should not be foregone by anyone who has either a technical appreciation of sound

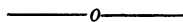
craftsmanship in metal-work or a general interest in the story of the Romans in Scotland.

Dr Macdonald was accorded a hearty vote of thanks for his most interesting lecture, which was illustrated by an extensive series of lantern slides.*

* For the very full report they have been able to present, the Editors are greatly indebted to the courtesy of *The Glasgow Herald*.

MEETING HELD AT ABERDEEN,

On SATURDAY, 9th MARCH 1907.



THE TENTH GENERAL MEETING of THE CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION OF SCOTLAND, was held in the Natural History Class-Room, Marischal College, Aberdeen, on Saturday, 9th March 1907. There was a fair attendance, and Professor Harrower, Vice-President, occupied the Chair, in the absence of Professor G. G. Ramsay, Glasgow, President.

The Chairman said he was sure they all regretted very much the absence of their President and the cause of it, and hoped that before another meeting of the Association he would be restored to health so that he might perform the duties which gave him so much pleasure. Unfortunately, the Secretary of the Association was also laid up, and he (the Chairman) had a letter from him expressing regret that he was unable through illness to come to Aberdeen.

Apologies for absence were submitted from Professors Phillimore, Glasgow, and Burnet, St Andrews; Professor Gilroy Aberdeen; Professor Butcher, and Mr Temple, Glasgow.

The Chairman said the President had sent on his paper and it was on a very interesting subject, and one certain to provoke interesting discussion if there was time at their disposal. He then proceeded to read Professor Ramsay's address on "Classical Education."

THE PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN,—It is a very great disappointment to me not to be able to meet you to-day as I had hoped to do; but I am, unfortunately, under orders which I cannot disobey. I had been greatly looking forward to this meeting in Aberdeen, because I look upon Aberdeen as preserving, in a pure and undefiled form, the old Scottish tradition of classical education. The eminent place that Aberdeen and the North hold in the field of the Classics is shown by the very large number of English University distinctions which they carry off; and the great excellence of the present classical teaching in Aberdeen University is proved by the manner in which she has lately distanced all the other Universities of Scotland by monopolising the Ferguson Scholarship—the blue ribbon of Scottish classical scholarship. For five successive years that distinction has been won by students from the University of Aberdeen. Little wonder that at a recent festival held to commemorate that remarkable success the famous saying about “Aberdeen and twalve mile roond” should have been so admirably expressed by one of your Ferguson scholars in a couplet worthy of Martial himself—

*Quot placet in partes, quaeris, discernere mundum ?
Altera Aberdonia est, altera barbaries.*

It is therefore a great disappointment to me not to have the pleasure of again addressing so congenial an audience, and of hearing the views upon the present state of classical culture in Scotland which are held by those schoolmasters and others who have made the north of Scotland famous in the past by bringing Latin and Greek within the reach of the humblest homes in the country; and I have to apologise all the more that I can now look upon myself as being to some extent an Aberdeen man, having received the high honour of a degree in your recent

famous celebration. There are many topics of immediate practical concern affecting classical education in Scotland, on which I should have liked to say a few words to-day. I should have liked particularly to hear the two papers to be read, and the discussion which they are sure to elicit, on the important question of the Intermediate Certificate. There are various other practical questions which I hope in time our Association will take up; but I cannot forbear from asking you to-day to hear a few words on a subject of practical teaching which has been constantly brought to my attention during the last few years, viz. :—

THE USE AND MISUSE OF UNSEENS.

You are all aware that the importance attached in Scotland to examinations in Unseen work as contrasted with prepared books is quite recent. It dates from the passing of the University Act of 1889. Up to that time examination papers in Unseen work were sparingly used even in the Universities; and the introduction of the new system was due to two main causes. First, classical teachers, both in schools and Universities, were beginning to feel that a really sound knowledge of a language could only be tested by the ability to translate at sight passages of ordinary difficulty, and to turn passages of similar difficulty from English into that language. The evils of cram had long been apparent. It was a matter of common complaint that students with good memories could get up books by rote, without having any real understanding of the language. Candidates who passed the best examination in prepared books were by no means always the best scholars. In some cases I have known students acquit themselves excellently on paper who had learnt off by heart every word of an English translation. I remember one case in which a student gave a perfect translation in excellent English, only, unfortunately, it was not a translation of the particular passage set in the examination, but of one which looked remarkably like it. In all examinations for open scholar-

ships at Oxford and Cambridge, in all Government examinations of a high class, it has long been recognised that no one could be said to know a language unless he could translate at sight; hence there was an overwhelming mass of opinion brought to bear upon the University Commissioners recommending that in the new Preliminary Examination for the universities the examination in languages should not be in prepared books at all, but only in Grammar, in Composition, and Unseen translation. Secondly, there was a practical argument which told in the same direction. In an examination which was to draw candidates from all parts of Scotland, it would have been difficult, if not impossible, to set prescribed books without interfering very seriously with the curricula of schools, and introducing a uniformity which would have been felt to be intolerable. But the main consideration was that the substitution of an examination in Unseen work for one in prepared books would put the whole classical teaching of Scotland upon a higher level; would discourage cram; and would set all teachers and all students working for the production of that higher appreciation and mastery of language which is technically known by the name of "Scholarship."

And now, what has been the effect upon classical teaching of this new kind of examination? I am not going to speak of the effects of the Preliminary Examination as a whole. They have been palpable and admirable. A high standard for admission to the universities has been set up; and in consequence, the standard of examination for the degree has been raised in all the old subjects of the M.A. course. But what has been the effect upon the classical education of the country, and upon the teaching given in the schools, of making the entrance to the university, so far as languages go, depend entirely upon grammar, Unseen translation, and composition, to the exclusion of prepared books, and of all questions which might test a knowledge, however elementary and general, of the history, the life, the literature of Ancient Greece and Rome? Of the necessity of making Grammar and Latin Prose

Composition essential parts of the examination there can be no doubt. I have laboured all my life to secure a good standard for Latin Prose in the Degree Examination, being convinced that the ability to write a fairly accurate bit of prose marks a stage of logical and intellectual development which, once attained, remains as an abiding possession for life, however much the Latin itself may disappear from the memory ; but nothing has helped so much to that end as the institution of the Preliminary Examination ; for, though many who pass it are still very weak in their prose, and all require systematic teaching in it before entering for their degree, we have now been able to bring that subject up to a standard which may be favourably compared with that of other British Universities.

But while highly satisfied by the results of the grammar and composition parts of the Preliminary Examination, I feel doubts as to the wisdom of confining the translation part of the examination entirely to Unseen passages ; and I begin to fear that in the desire to eliminate the element of cram in the preparation of books which we all expect scholars to have read at school, we have done something to prevent their being read at all ; or at least to encourage their being studied in a less thorough and careful manner than is essential for purposes of education.

Now, if there is one thing more than another that has been brought out in recent discussions on classical education, it is that if the classics are to keep their hold upon the nation as a main instrument of higher education, it must be by making the teaching of them more real, more living, and less technical than it has tended recently to become. We do not want our boys to study Latin and Greek as linguistic puzzles ; we wish them to be studied, no doubt, as an introduction to the principles of language in general, and as a potent help towards obtaining a mastery of their own tongue, or of any other they may have to learn ; but also, and still more, as an introduction to the great central facts of human life and thought, of history and literature. These facts can be studied most fruitfully in connection with ancient Greece

and Rome because they are there presented in simple fundamental forms, unencumbered by the mass of detail, untainted by the introduction of modern party questions, which make the study of modern life at once more difficult and less illuminating for the young mind. Therefore, both at school and at the university, the great classical authors should be studied as much for their matter as for their form. The real education to be gained from any great classical book is gained by mastering its contents, understanding its ideas and allusions, knowing what is to be known about the persons and places concerned, comprehending the scope and the occasion of its being written, and thus learning to appreciate the beauty of the language and to feel what literature means. For the above purposes careful study of books as a whole is essential; and any examination which fails to bring out whether such a study has been given or not, fails in its essential educational purpose.

How far then does an examination consisting of Unseen passages for translation provide such a test? My answer is that it depends largely upon the stage of proficiency reached by the pupil; more largely still upon the question whether such an examination has been made the be-all and the end-all of the teaching which it professes to test.

When a really high standard of knowledge has been reached, Unseens are admirable. No other test can be applied (alongside of composition) to discover whether or not a candidate possesses a finished knowledge of the niceties of a language; no other test throws the candidate so entirely upon his own resources. Hence it is used in all the highest University and Government Examinations, whether in ancient or modern languages. But in examinations of this higher grade, an Unseen *does* bring out and test knowledge which can only have been acquired by a previous thorough study of many books. No candidate can face an examination for an open University Scholarship of the first grade without having read widely and read carefully. In such examinations the candidate must show, in every piece that he translates,

that he understands the meaning and bearing of the piece, its allusions, its argument, its literary and historical setting; if he fails to do this, he will fail to give an excellent translation, and to secure a high place. A good examiner has no difficulty in discovering whether a translation is composed of a series of happy or unhappy guesses, or is based upon a trained acquaintance with ancient life and literature.

But at an earlier stage of development the case is very different. It is of no use to set a boy down to a piece of Unseen translation unless he has read enough in the same kind of style, and in the same kind of subject, to enable him more or less successfully to make his way through the whole. The teacher ought to make sure, before setting an Unseen, that the pupil has material enough in his mind, and training enough in the language, to enable him to cope with it from his existing knowledge; when he has reached that stage, the exercise is in the highest degree wholesome and stimulating. But it is a fatal mistake to put before a boy a mere puzzle, which he has not the material in his brain to deal with; it is not fair to set him to a hopeless task; and it encourages that disastrous habit of making shots and random guesses which is destructive of sound and steady progress, and leads to forming habits of inaccuracy. I have had occasionally to look over Unseen translations in which there was not one word of sense from beginning to end.

Let me take an instance from the very simple art of teaching children how to spell. Most children find this a difficult branch of knowledge; some grown persons have never acquired it. A good teacher knows that the secret of success is, if possible, to keep a pupil from ever making a mistake. One of the best teachers I ever knew told me that his method was as follows. He would first write up upon the black-board the word or words which he desired his class to learn. He would make the class read out the word, and the letters, from the board several times. He would then make them take the slate or copy-book and write down the spelling from the board before them. Then covering

the board, he would make the pupils repeat the spelling once or twice or more until they mastered it. Lastly, when satisfied they thoroughly knew that word, he would make them write down the spelling several times from memory, till the picture of the right spelling was printed firmly in their minds; his object being, if possible, never to allow the false spelling to come into their mind's eye at all. We all of us know that in spelling, as in many other things, "he who hesitates is lost." If a child is once permitted to write the word wrong, an unhappy doubt arises between competitive modes of spelling; and when once a competition of that kind is started, it may take months, possibly years, to dispose of it. Of all modes of teaching, that which has been advocated as the "pitfall principle" is the worst. That principle consists in knowingly luring a scholar into a difficulty as to which he is sure to make a mistake, and letting him fall headlong into the trap; and then the teacher has the joy of pulling him out again. No better plan could be conceived if the object of teaching were to bamboozle the pupil, and leave his mind in a state of hopeless perplexity. He scents the difficulty from afar when he comes across it again; he knows there is a horrid doubt about it; but it becomes a matter of pure guess-work whether he should solve it in one way or in another.

The true method of teaching is to lead the pupil gradually on from step to step, explaining what is new, and encouraging him to make fresh steps for himself in a region where things have been already made plain to him. In the same way, Unseens should be introduced gradually, in proportion to the amount of reading, and the kind of reading, which the pupil has gone through. His mind will be braced by feeling that he has a problem before him which is within his strength; whereas nothing is so discouraging for him as to feel conscious that he has not within him the means of solving the difficulty that has been set before him.

I have been led to make these remarks from my experience in the University Preliminary Examination, and also in the teaching of my own class. In spite of the recent improvement in the

knowledge of Latin as a language, I have detected no improvement, but rather the reverse, in the general knowledge of classical subjects shown by students who have passed even the Higher Grade. I have found frequently in them an entire absence of knowledge of history, of antiquities, of geography, in fact of all the things except language which make the study of the classics a living reality. I have also found a want of understanding how books should be read, if they are to be thoroughly mastered; and not frequently a want of interest in the subject-matter of the books read. I am led, therefore, to the conclusion that in many cases the students have been specially prepared for the examination by reading fragments and snippets of authors, in the hope of dealing successfully with the particular passages likely to be set in the examination, instead of being regularly trained by getting up entire books, and learning to appreciate all the points which the knowledge of such a book implies.

As a matter of fact, such a mode of preparing students for an Unseen examination is perhaps the worst that could be adopted. The way to teach a pupil to face Unseens is to make him do his seen work thoroughly and carefully, and learn as he goes along how difficulties have to be faced. It is easy for an examiner to discriminate between those whose translations rest upon a really sound basis of reading, and those who have managed to pick up by fragmentary methods just enough knowledge of the language to scrape through.

I fully appreciate the strain which has been put upon the schools of Scotland by the sudden introduction of a preliminary examination with so high a standard. There has hardly as yet perhaps been time to consolidate methods of teaching throughout the country, as they have so long been consolidated in the public schools of England. The English schools do not permit themselves to be diverted from sound methods of teaching by the requirements of a system so despotic as that of our Preliminary and Certificate Examinations. They decline to allow their courses of instruction to be interfered with by an examination imposed from

above, and, in consequence, the Leaving Certificate Examinations conducted by the Oxford and Cambridge Board are based upon the books and subjects read in the school course, although, of course, they contain examination in Unseen work also.

In the probable reform of university arrangements, I should feel disposed to recommend a change which, without restoring the plan of setting definite portions of definite books to be prepared, might yet encourage scholars to read the best authors in the best way. It might be announced each year that the translations would be taken from certain considerable portions of certain authors. The portions named should be too large to admit of being crammed; and the definition of the subjects would secure that considerable portions of such authors were read, and read carefully. I would introduce also general questions in history, antiquities, and literature, quite of a general and easy kind, and with ample alternatives, so as to make sure that the authors read should be read not merely as exercises in language, but as an introduction to the real life of ancient Greece and Rome.

I repeat that Unseen translations are an excellent exercise for senior and honour students, and indispensable in honour examinations; but they should be used sparingly for pass men, and still more sparingly in the ordinary curriculum of schools. Just as it is premature to ask a boy to write an essay till he has got something in his head to say, so to put an Unseen before him which goes beyond his reading, is to ask him to make bricks without straw.

I could give amusing and even instructive examples to show how often students, who have passed even the higher preliminary, have chaotic notions of the principal events, personages, and places ordinarily encountered in the Classics. I once had a class, only one member of which could tell me what was a Tribune of the Plebs. One told me that Tarquin, Spurius Maelius, and Manlius, were all killed in the wars of Julius Caesar; and even after reading Horace for a session, I have been informed by students that Tempe was a watering-place in Italy, that Aufidus

betrayed the Romans to Jugurtha, that Patareus was one of the Giants who rebelled against Jupiter, while another converted him into a Sicilian promontory. Indeed, I might sometimes have constructed a tolerably complete map of Italy out of the answers to a single proper name, which had been explained by various writers to be a province, a river, a mountain, a town, or even as the name of Horace's favourite young lady. It seems to be a law of nature that when a student finds a word printed with a capital letter, he is apt to hold himself relieved from all further responsibility about it. Proper names are regarded as negligible quantities; and at every step the appreciation of an author is interfered with by ignorance of elementary facts of history, geography, mythology, all of which might easily be learned at school. Some instances of the difficulties caused by examinations of this kind to candidates who have not been well grounded in the language, are quite pathetic. One candidate, not long ago, was in sore tribulation. He had been rejected no less than four times for the Preliminary; and the hard thing was, according to his own account, that it was entirely a matter of ill-luck. He had carefully studied previous papers; and going on the law of averages, like scientific players in the gaming rooms of Monte Carlo, he had each time made up his mind what kind of passage was going to be set next time, and had prepared accordingly. But, by a continuous run of bad luck, whenever he had got up all the proper words and phrases for a military piece, a political piece was set; if he got up all possible philosophical or oratorical terms, some homely anecdote in ordinary life was set, with no philosophy or oratory in it.

This is an extreme case of unmerited misfortune; but it illustrates what I have said above as to the mistake of preparing for an Unseen examination by giving fragments only, instead of by reading books continuously. The pieces set in our Preliminary Examination are never set with a view to technical difficulty. They may sometimes seem unduly hard—and I have often been struck by the fact that a piece which I have selected for its all-round

fairness and simplicity turned out much harder in the doing than I had expected. But the pieces chosen are never chosen for their hardness; they are chosen for their fairness, all rare and technical terms being avoided as far as possible, the object being to discover whether a candidate has just such a knowledge of the ordinary words, constructions, and phrases of the language as would be gained by reading the books ordinarily read at school in the ordinary way. It is the greatest mistake in the world to regard such an examination as containing a set of pitfalls, or to presume that the dodges of the examiner can best be met by similar dodges on the part of the examinee. In nine cases out of ten, the reason why a candidate fails, is not because he has not been tried before in a passage of a similar kind, but because he has no sound knowledge of the language as a whole, and of the ordinary life of the people who spoke it.

“Would you never then give Unseens at school at all?” it may be asked. By no means; but I would remember that they are mainly for the best scholars in the school, the honour scholars so to say—and that rather as a test of how far a scholar has got, than as a means of instruction. I would never give to a pupil an Unseen that was beyond his powers. I would not have him prepared specially for doing them. Like happiness itself, the power to do Unseens comes most surely to those who have worked honestly, but without having that particular object in view.

The Position of Classics under the new conditions for the issue of Intermediate and Leaving Certificates.

I.

By GEORGE A. MORRISON, M.A.,

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ONE does not go far in the consideration of such a subject as this without being struck by the deplorable lack of co-ordination and co-operation among the authorities that influence the education given in schools above the standard of the primary school. We have the universities with their Preliminary and Bursary Examinations, the Education Department with its Intermediate and Leaving Certificates—which seem at last to be taking something like a fixed shape: we even feel, though indirectly, the power of a third sovereign and irresponsible educational authority—the Carnegie Trust.

This complaint is by no means new: it would not be difficult

to instance absurdities which result from this state of matters, or to suggest remedies. Our subject lies within narrower limits.

An issue of great importance is raised by the proposal of the Department to make the Intermediate Certificate a living force in all schools above the primary school. Hitherto the Intermediate Certificate has served as the diploma of the Higher Grade School; though open to pupils in Secondary Schools, it has not been a necessary stepping-stone to the Leaving Certificate. But a footnote to circular 389 (March 1906) reads:—"It is the ultimate intention of their Lordships to make qualification for the Intermediate Certificate a condition precedent to entering upon a course approved for any form of Leaving Certificate."

It is a group certificate and will be awarded only to those who have completed an approved curriculum extending over three years. The minimum age at the time of presentation will be 14½.

A point in favour of the Intermediate Certificate, one that ought to appeal to any who have ever had experience in teaching in the middle department of a large Secondary School, is that it promises to provide a definite objective for the difficult period of school life between the ages of 12 and 15.

To come to details of the curriculum—it may be taken that Latin will be begun in the first year of the Intermediate Course, or at anyrate, that there will be beginners in that class, entering from the primary school. It would be unwise to start Greek before pupils have had two years' Latin. This would leave one year for Greek before the Intermediate Certificate Examination—obviously an insufficient preparation for an examination like Lower Grade Greek which is to be the normal standard.

Moreover, candidates for the Intermediate Certificate "must be presented at the Leaving Certificate Examination in all the subjects of the approved curriculum for which tests are set in that examination. Further, such presentation must be simultaneous, taking place not earlier than the end of the third year of the course."

If this regulation is to be strictly enforced, either Greek must

be dropped from the Intermediate curriculum or it must be begun before pupils have had sufficient experience of Latin.

It seems to me that there is here an opportunity of effecting a much needed reform — the lightening of the Secondary School curriculum.

I should be content to see only one language other than English, and that language Latin; but I imagine most schools will find it difficult to resist the demand for a modern language. Moreover, a modern language would not suffer so much as Greek would by being begun in the second, or even the first year of the course.

A very generous allowance of time should be given to the three staple subjects English, Latin, Mathematics.

I am not inclined to agree with the proposal of the Secondary Teachers' Association to ask permission to replace Science by a language. Considerable latitude is allowed in regard to courses of work in Science, it is to be largely experimental, and there is to be no written paper in the examination. The time laid down for Science works out at three hours per week. In various ways this might be made an excellent "relief" subject. The same may be said of Drawing, which I should be glad to see continued right to the top of the school.

Let me state very briefly some of the considerations that have led me to suggest the postponing of Greek till the beginning of the Leaving Certificate Course.

1. It would allow pupils joining from Intermediate Schools to begin Greek on level terms with the rest.
2. Most of the recently suggested methods of Greek study seem to postulate a higher age in the pupils, and more experience in handling their own and other languages.
3. Pupils would come to the study of Greek well trained in Latin, and would be able to make rapid progress.
4. The later differentiation would enable a pupil to see for himself, or at least to appreciate more readily the advice of his teacher, as to whether he was likely

to do well in classics or not. Thus some might turn to other courses, with advantage both to themselves and to classics.

5. If the curriculum of the Advanced (or Leaving Certificate) Course were lightened, a three years' course in Greek would be ample.

This relief can come only from the university. If the Bursary Competition were altered (as it might be in various ways, and must be in some way)—if it were altered so as to make Greek optional, Greek would be studied by the deliberate choice of the pupil. I am not at all dismayed at the prospect. Greek is far too good a subject to disappear from schools: if it is not at present the best school subject, it could very easily be made so. The number of those taking Greek would certainly decrease if Greek were made optional, but I do not consider that this would be all loss. We should at anyrate be rid of those who under present conditions study Greek practically by compulsion, and throw it aside at the earliest opportunity.

I cannot too strongly insist on the necessity for relieving the burden which the Bursary Competition at present imposes.

The evil results to body and mind of a system which entails six hours a day in school, with an equal or greater amount of home study, are not far to seek.

A great improvement would be made by separating the Bursary Competition from the Preliminary Examination. Bursaries might be awarded on groups of three or even two subjects, seeing that a standard of all-round attainment is otherwise provided for. The relief would be great. There is all the difference in the world between working for a pass in a subject and straining to make a high mark. Take the case of a classical pupil who is not particularly strong in Mathematics. He is not troubled about passing, but in order to make a respectable mark in Mathematics he must devote to that subject an amount of time out of all proportion to the result — time which might have been far more profitably spent on other subjects.

Mathematicians will, of course, use this illustration the other way round.

I have gone out of my way to attack the Bursary Competition once more, because I believe that, as at present conducted, it is against the best interests of education, and therefore against the best interests of classics.

II.

BY WILLIAM RIDDOCH, M.A.,

Rector of Mackie Academy, Stonehaven.

IT is impossible to obtain a clear conception of the Intermediate Certificate without first glancing at the various kinds of schools in Scotland, and the place which each kind occupies in our educational system. A simple and, at the same time, a useful classification of schools has been furnished by the Department in the recently issued regulations for the education and training of teachers. The Department propose to divide all schools into three grades—Primary Schools, Intermediate Schools, and Secondary Schools.

A Primary School furnishes education for pupils below the age of 14, the age beyond which attendance is not compulsory. On passing the Qualifying Examination, described in article 29 of the Code, pupils attending Primary Schools are taught in supplementary courses, and as this examination should be taken about the age of 12, these supplementary courses extend normally over two years.

An Intermediate School may, and generally does, have a complete set of classes from the infant division upwards, but the Intermediate School proper takes over the pupils only after they have passed the Qualifying Examination. Starting at this stage, it provides a three years' course, and should therefore retain its pupils till they are at least 15 years of age. The three years' course is called an Intermediate Curriculum, and the school providing it is therefore called, or is to be called, an Intermediate School.

A Secondary School may, like an Intermediate School, have a complete set of classes from the infant division upwards, but the Secondary School proper is confined to pupils who have passed the Qualifying Examination. It provides a course extending over at least five years, and should therefore retain its pupils from the age of 12 till the age of 17 at least.

I shall now say a few words about the various certificates open to pupils attending the different grades of schools.

In the opinion of the Department, the goal of the Primary School pupil should be the Merit Certificate: the actual goal which the pupil does keep in view, is getting away from school at the age of 14. I recently heard a story bearing upon this point. A teacher was deeply engrossed in explaining to a supplementary class something which had come up in the course of their lesson. The pupils were supposed to be all attention, when suddenly one of them got up. Saying to the teacher that he had just reached the age of 14, he gathered his belongings together, and stalked out of the room.

Pupils leaving an Intermediate School should aim at gaining the Intermediate Certificate.

In each of these two grades of schools there is naturally only one certificate. But at the apex of the Secondary School there are four different certificates, viz., the Leaving Certificate, the Commercial Certificate, the Technical Certificate, and the Special Group Certificate, and no pupil is held to have completed a Secondary Curriculum satisfactorily, unless he has qualified for

one of these four certificates. The Leaving Certificate is intended to indicate that the holder is qualified to enter upon university studies. The Commercial and the Technical Certificate explain themselves. The Special Group Certificate is a sort of dumping-ground for whatever cannot be brought under one of the other three.

The nomenclature of the Secondary School Certificates is, to say the least, somewhat illogical. They are all Leaving Certificates. Yet one arrogates to itself the title of Leaving Certificate, while the others are named after the special department in respect of which they are granted. It would be more logical to give each the general title of Leaving Certificate, and to add some limiting term which would distinguish the different kinds from one another. But we need not quarrel with a name, if the thing is right.

The three last-mentioned certificates have not yet caught on. In his report for the year 1906, Dr Struthers states that in the whole of Scotland only seven pupils qualified for the award of the Technical Certificate at the last Leaving Certificate Examination, six received a Special Group Certificate, and one solitary individual, a sort of educational phoenix, was deemed worthy of receiving the Commercial Certificate. From these figures it would appear that the supply of these certificates exceeds the demand.

Having now surveyed the various kinds of schools and their appropriate certificates, I shall proceed to discuss the Intermediate and the Leaving Certificate, and the effect on classical education of the regulations under which they are now to be issued.

With regard to the Intermediate Certificate, the first question that arises is:—Does it serve any useful purpose so far as Secondary Schools are concerned? The Department intend it to serve two purposes, first, as regards Intermediate Schools, to mark the successful completion of an approved course of study, and secondly, as regards Secondary Schools, to indicate that the

holder has reached a half-way house in his pilgrimage towards the Leaving Certificate, or, in other words, that he has successfully completed one half or, it may be, three-fifths of an approved course of secondary education. The ultimate intention of the Department is to allow no pupil to enter on a course of study for the Leaving Certificate unless he has gained the Intermediate Certificate.

The Certificate is clearly required for Intermediate Schools, being as it is the crown of their work. And it is necessary also in Secondary Schools which have been recognised as Junior Student centres, because some educational test must be applied to pupils who desire to be nominated as Junior Students, and the test furnished by the examination for the Intermediate Certificate is perhaps as satisfactory as any that could be devised. But, apart from the case of intending Junior Students, why should there be a half-way examination in Secondary Schools? I fail to see any good that will come of it. A pupil is certified to be fit to enter on a course of secondary education when he passes the Qualifying Examination. By all means let the Department satisfy themselves as to the appropriateness and the sufficiency of the curriculum which he is to take. But do not let them examine him with a view to the award of a certificate, until he thinks of leaving school. It would be about as sensible to examine the work of a painter when the picture is half-finished. It cannot be said that a distinct stage in education has been reached when a pupil has completed three years' attendance at a Secondary School. The whole process is, or should be, continuous from the day he enters till the day he leaves. And yet the Department state that "the Intermediate Certificate is to testify to the successful completion of a well-balanced course of general education," as if the general education finished at the end of the third session and the particular commenced at the beginning of the fourth. Examinations are admitted to be an evil in themselves. Why should the evil not be kept within the narrowest possible limits?

It will of course be objected that it is only the certificate, or rather the form of the certificate, that is new, the examination for it is merely the old Lower Grade Leaving Certificate Examination. This is quite true. But formerly presentation on the Lower Grade was not compulsory. Under the new regulations it is. Every pupil should now be presented at the close of his third year, and in all the subjects of his course.

I have looked in vain for any strong argument to justify the institution of the new Intermediate Certificate. If the Department wish to modify and regulate the Intermediate Curriculum of Secondary Schools, they can do so quite well without imposing an examination for a certificate at the end of the curriculum. Surely teachers may be trusted to do their work honestly, without the menace of an unnecessary examination. A multiplicity of public examinations and certificates is undoubtedly detrimental to the true welfare of pupils. They and their parents are led to attach an exaggerated importance to what is really altogether outside education. Their attention is abstracted from the end, and fixed on what is not even a means to the end. Ultimate good is often sacrificed to present expediency.

Generally, then, I think that, so far as possible, all examinations held by the Department with a view to the granting of Leaving Certificates, should be postponed till the pupils are in their last session, and in particular that the Intermediate Certificate will serve no good purpose in Secondary Schools.

Having criticised the Intermediate Certificate on *a priori* grounds, I shall now examine the actual regulations which the Department have issued with the view, as they say, "of placing the Intermediate Certificate upon a satisfactory permanent basis."

But here there is a difficulty. The Department talk about a well-balanced course of general education, and we are told that this course must extend over three years, but nowhere, so far as I am aware, do they indicate clearly what subjects this well-balanced course should embrace, unless indeed the desired indication is given in the printing of the form on which application has to be

made for the approval of the course. In this form certain subjects have their names printed in bolder type than the rest. These are English, a Foreign Language, History, Geography, Mathematics, Science, and Drawing. The other subjects mentioned in the form are Manual Work, Needlework, Physical Exercises, and Music, but additional subjects may be added at the option of managers. It is natural to assume that the subjects included in the first list are to be regarded as compulsory, or at least as the most important subjects, and it is understood that this assumption represents, more or less accurately, the present views of the Department.

Now it is obvious that the Department's Intermediate Curriculum is quite suitable for the majority of Secondary pupils. Boys who have the Technical Certificate in view should certainly take Science and Drawing during the first half as well as during the second half of their Secondary School course. Nor can it be said that the curriculum is inappropriate for boys who are aiming at the Commercial Certificate. But when we come to pupils who wish to specialise either in Classics or in Modern Languages, the case is different. It is necessary to bear in mind that, for most pupils, only three years of school life remain, after the Intermediate Certificate has been gained. The question then is simply narrowed down to this:—Is it practicable for a pupil to pass through the Intermediate Curriculum laid down by the Department, and at the same time to obtain, say, a good classical education. My answer is that, as things are at present, I do not regard this as practicable. The aspirant to classical distinction will of course take Latin all through his Secondary course. But when is he to begin Greek? I do not think it advisable to begin Greek at a very early stage. Progress must, in that case, be slow and slowness is in danger of becoming weariness. If, on the other hand, the start is postponed till the pupil's mind is more mature, progress is much more rapid. *Hos successus alit : possunt quia posse videntur.* Every one who has made the experiment knows that this is true. But it does not follow that Greek should be commenced only after the Intermediate Certificate has been

gained. This would normally leave only three years for the subject, and that I think is insufficient. It is no doubt possible in that time to make a pupil sufficiently acquainted with grammatical forms, and to do a considerable amount of reading. But a classical education should do more than that for a boy. When he leaves school, he should have some knowledge—I do not say, thoroughly accurate knowledge—of the political history of the Greeks and the Romans, their institutions, their customs, their religion, their intellectual and moral peculiarities, and their art. And I do not think it is possible to do an adequate amount of this kind of work in three years. The only alternative is to begin Greek earlier, and this, I think, is what should be done. A start ought to be made in the third or last year of the Intermediate course, which will give, as a rule, a four years' course.

But now we are on the other horn of the dilemma. If Greek is begun at the stage indicated, classical pupils, who take French, will, under present conditions, be subjected to an amount of pressure which will be altogether intolerable. They will have to take during their fourth last year all the five subjects required for the Arts Bursary Competition and Science and Drawing in addition. Candidates who take Dynamics instead of French at the Bursary Competition might certainly take Science all through their course. But it is only the pupils who are strong in Mathematics who will take Dynamics: the rest will prefer French, and my argument holds with regard to them.

If there were no government examination at the close of the Intermediate Curriculum, it would be less difficult to work that curriculum and the Bursary Competition regulations together. But the existence of this examination changes the situation. Pupils must be posted up in all the points likely to emerge in the examination, and so the school is turned into a workshop for the production of suits of educational armour guaranteed to withstand all the fiery darts of the gentlemen who set the Leaving Certificate papers.

The Intermediate Curriculum might not be incompatible with

a re-organised Bursary Competition. But this question cannot be considered until the re-organisation is an accomplished fact. It is perhaps too much to expect that the Department and the Universities should take joint action with the view of securing an effective correlation between their respective interests in Secondary Education. Procedure so natural is out of the question in a highly civilised age like ours.

My conclusion with regard to the Intermediate Certificate is that, if the Department insist on their regulations being carried out, things have almost reached an *impasse*. The case of classical pupils would probably be met by exempting them from taking Science and perhaps Drawing during their last year in the Intermediate division of the school, but it is questionable if this would meet all other cases. The more radical suggestion has therefore been made that the only compulsory subject should be English, and that, as regards the other subjects, freedom of choice should, within certain limits, be allowed to school managers.

I have time for only a brief reference to the regulations under which Leaving Certificates are granted. But it is less necessary to speak about them as they have been in operation for several years and their effect on classical education should now be well understood. What appears to me to be wanted here is that pupils should be exempted towards the end of their course from the study of certain subjects after they have reached a certain degree of proficiency in those subjects. The pressure at present is excessive, and if the ship is not lightened by the sacrifice of some Jonah, she may founder before she reaches the harbour. If some relaxation were granted, pupils would be free to devote their attention to the subjects for which they show some aptitude. The need for a change appears to be recognised even by the Department. In his last report, the secretary writes: "If there is to be further progress in individual subjects, the pupils must be protected by a limitation. There must be an ever-increasing degree of concentration in the highest classes." And again, referring to Classics specially, he says: "Those pupils who

are gifted with a genuine aptitude for classical studies ought to be at liberty, during the last three or four years of their school life, to devote much more time to ancient languages than is usually possible at present."

Professor HARROWER then invited discussion on the subject of the papers.

Mr MORLAND SIMPSON, Aberdeen, said he strongly agreed with Mr Riddoch in thinking there was no necessity for anything like a formal examination at that stage of the school course meant to be covered by the Intermediate Certificate. With regard to the inclusion of science at so advanced a stage, he had no quarrel with science. Yet he could not help thinking that scientific men were not justified in appropriating that name. There was a form of science that appealed to a child even at an earlier stage than that at which botany was usually introduced. He referred to grammar, and he looked upon that as giving the best scientific training that one could get. He was quite sure, that, if scientific men had studied language a little more, we would have been spared many of the monstrosities of scientific terminology. It ought to be borne in mind, that the object of school work was not to teach so much botany, or so much chemistry, but to train the young mind in the history of "men and morals," and the child would not get much of that in dealing with gases. Science touched very little upon history. He did not speak in a spirit of bigotry. Outside of his own work, he had all his life been a student of science. He admitted that men were all the better for some knowledge of science that enabled them to take an intelligent interest in the things about them; but it was becoming a perfect fetish in education.

To sum up what he had been saying, he failed to see why there should be this formal stiff examination imposed upon boys

in order to be admitted to the higher forms. The Intermediate Examination seemed not to have got on well in the Intermediate Schools, and to apply it to the Secondary Schools seemed like an attempt to save the examination from disappearing altogether—which would, perhaps, be the best fate that could happen to it.

Mr PETER SMITH, Gordon's College, Aberdeen, said one point seemed to have been left out of account in what had been said. The Intermediate Certificate seemed intended to complete a certain stage of work in the Secondary Schools, the stage at which the pupil branched either into commercial or classical or scientific training. He had no great fondness for any examination at that point, but there was something in having a general curriculum for three years, and then diverging into more specialised training. This was to some extent the very purpose of the Intermediate Certificate, and he thought the discussion ought to be whether it should be taken at that point or earlier.

Mr ALEXANDER EMSLIE, Fordyce Academy, before touching on the question of the Intermediate Certificate, referred to the paper of the President, and expressed the hope that those in charge of the arrangements for future meetings would give the Association an opportunity of threshing out the whole question of Unseens.

Those present would remember that in "Vanity Fair," Becky Sharp belonged to a school in which each pupil received a dictionary. It seemed likely to be the fate of every pupil in the schools of to-day to get a certificate. It would also be remembered that Becky Sharp threw away her dictionary. It might similarly come to be the opinion that the certificates were not worth carrying away. The Qualifying Examination was a farce, and the Intermediate seemed to be going to be modelled on the same lines. The teacher was to give a pious opinion, the Department was to accept that opinion after consideration, and the pupil would go away with his ticket and a smile. The examination ought to be made a reality or left out altogether.

If it were to be made a reality, there seemed fair ground for retaining it, because pupils would be coming from Intermediate Schools to Secondary Schools, and it would lead to the proper co-ordination of the courses in the various schools.

Mr ROSE, Kirkcaldy High School, said that to his mind the chief question was what would be the effect of the Intermediate Certificate upon the curriculum that led up to it. The Department seemed to be in a fog as to what the result would be, but they seemed quite clearly to be aiming at making the Intermediate Curriculum uniform. The evil of uniformity lay in a lowering of the standard, and the clever pupil was sacrificed and learned to loaf instead of to work. Again there was already a uniform curriculum laid down for Junior Students, above the Intermediate Certificate, which threatened to sweep within its net teachers of all classes. He thought it was their duty to speak out strongly against this worship of uniformity, for it was quite certain to work great mischief.

Mr G. MIDDLETON, Aberdeen, said the most clamant evil of the day was the amount of work boys had to do. Pupils were expected to do well even in subjects for which they were not suited. If a boy were a linguist, there was nothing wrong in expecting him to do well, but it was simply cruel to ask the same attainment from him in mathematics. Three subjects were quite enough for the Bursary Competition.

Mr M'PHERSON, Banff Academy, said they were already feeling the pressure of the compulsory curriculum. He had no quarrel with science or drawing. They were in themselves educative, and acted as a welcome relief from other subjects, but they should have liberty to drop these in the third year of the intermediate course, or, at least, after the pupil had got the Intermediate Certificate. The Department should tackle the

universities and get them to modify their curriculum, and afterwards they could co-ordinate the school courses to suit the changed requirements.

Mr W. A. EDWARD, Broughton Higher Grade School, Edinburgh, said that in connection with the junior students' curriculum, the result of the Intermediate Certificate would do nothing but good to Latin. But the school which most heartily took up the certificate would be handicapped in the Bursary Competition. Greek would be in as bad a condition as it was before.

Mr JOHN M'KENZIE, Madras College, St Andrews, said his own practice had been to drop science and drawing after two years for those going to the university. If that were not allowed, it would kill Greek or German. So long as they had five subjects, something must be sacrificed if science had to be taken.

Dr HEARD, Fettes College, Edinburgh, said he confessed the proposals of the Department required a great deal of consideration. His great fear was that, with regard to the whole system of education in the country, they were losing their old ideals and substituting a mechanical system. This continual examination of schools, on all occasions, and from top to bottom, would destroy inspiration and originality in teaching. External examination should only come in at the close of the course. The public had, of course, a right to demand that the outcome of education should be looked to, but a school should be allowed to work up to that without interference. External examinations were a mistake for boys who were ultimately going in for the Leaving Certificate. The effect of the Intermediate Certificate would be to produce a wide mediocrity, but high excellence would suffer.

Professor HARROWER said he was sure they had had an instructive discussion, and one that would bear fruit. With regard to the Bursary Competition, he had always been of the

mind of those who had spoken of it. It was not that the standard of any one subject was high, but with five subjects, it was really expecting too much. The matter was not being neglected, and the universities were anxious to have the burden lightened as much as possible.

Mr MORRISON and Mr RIDDOCH then briefly replied on the discussion.

When the Association met in the afternoon after the usual interval, Professor HARROWER said it gave him much pleasure to introduce to the Association Professor Sir William Ramsay. He really needed no introduction. No scholar had done more pioneer work than he, and he congratulated himself when he succeeded in securing his consent to give a lecture to the Association. Professor Sir W. M. RAMSAY, D.C.L., then read a short paper on "Monuments of Ancient Art in Asia Minor," and was cordially thanked, on the motion of Professor BALDWIN BROWN.

On the motion of Dr HEARD, the thanks of the Association were accorded to Professor Harrower and the committee of arrangements for the Aberdeen meeting, also to Professor J. Arthur Thomson for the use of his class room.

APPENDIX.

SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS
IN REGARD TO
THE PRONUNCIATION OF LATIN

ADOPTED BY THE CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION OF SCOTLAND, AND
APPROVED BY THE SCOTCH EDUCATION DEPARTMENT.

I. QUANTITY.

1. Quantity does not mean loudness or emphasis, but duration in time.

2. Latin should be pronounced more slowly than English, and with a slighter accent. (The Latin accent fell on the penultimate syllable, if that syllable was long; if it was short, on the antepenultimate: *redībat*, *redībimus*. In a word of two syllables it fell on the first syllable: *redīt*.)

3. Verse should never be read without attention to its metrical form.

4. Quantity should be observed, and acquired by the ear, from the earliest stages of teaching.

5. In particular, care must be taken to avoid shortening an unaccented long syllable (*cūrāntem*, *amicītia*), or lengthening an accented short one (*lābor*, *āvidus*, *amicītia*).

6. Double consonants, giving 'length by position,' should be pronounced separately, as in Italian, one in one syllable, the other in the other (*an-nus*): but a mute with *l* or *r* did not make the syllable long in ordinary speech unless the letters were in separate words or separate parts of a compound word (*rē-pressit*, but *ab-rumpo*; *tenē-brae*, but *teneb-rae* sometimes in verse).

7. Syllables elided in verse must be made audible in reading. It is only for scansion that they disappear altogether.

8. 'Hidden quantities' are often doubtful or unimportant, but in a few instances they furnish a useful distinction (e.g., *ēst* from *edo*, *ěst* from *sum*), and sometimes the formation of the word makes them obvious (e.g., *īsti* = *ivisti*).

II. THE SYSTEM OF SOUNDS.

The purpose of the following scheme is practical rather than theoretical: what is proposed is such an approximation to the ancient pronunciation as may reasonably be expected in ordinary teaching.

A.—Consonants.

As in English, generally.

The most important exceptions are:—

c, g, t—always hard (as in *cat, get, ten*), whatever vowel may follow.

Consonantal *i* (*j*) = *y*.

s is believed to have been always hard, as *s* in *sing*, *ce* in *face* (*urbs* like *urps*: *hiems* like *hiemps*, as it is sometimes spelled, cf. *sumpsi*: *exul* = *eksul*, not *egzul*).

Consonantal *u* (*v*) may be pronounced as *v*. It is generally believed, although it is not proved beyond doubt, that it was like our *w*, but there is no practical gain, as regards quantity, in adopting that sound.

ch when it occurs in Latin words (e.g., *pulcher*) need not be differentiated from *c* (*k*).

Final *m* was probably a sonant nasal, or in some way attenuated (hence elided in verse).

n before *c, g*, and *qu*, as in *ring*.

r wherever it occurs should be trilled or pronounced distinctly (not as in England).

B.—Vowel-Sounds.

Note.—When several words are given as examples, it is not meant that they are all exactly alike, but that together they will give some idea of the sound required.

ā (sānus) father, alms.
ǣ (grāvis) grandfather, footpath: apart, available, sympathy (but the *a* here is not a pure *a*-sound: these three words illustrate the shortness of short *a* rather than its quality).

ē (lēnis) bay.*
ĕ (lēvis) get.
ī (fidus) pique: queen.*
ĭ (cīnis) hit, fit, inaudible.
ō (prōnus) low,* alone.
ŏ (ŏvis) got.
ū (ūmor) wooed, intrude, intrusion, moon.*
ŭ (tūmulus) superfluous, book, full.

au (aurum) fowl, cow.
eu (ceu) new (not quite exact, but sufficiently so).
ui (huic) French *lui*, *oui*: *we* (*N.B.*—*huic*, *cui* are sometimes in verse disyllabic, *huīc*, *cui*, as *ruin*).

The following present greater difficulties:—

ae (Caesar) may be differentiated from *ē* by giving it either (*a*) the sound of German *ā*, or *ē* prolonged, so that, *e.g.*, the first two vowel-sounds in *praetereunt* differ in quantity only, or (*b*) the sound of *eye*, *high*, *sigh*. The former is probably nearer the pronunciation of Cicero's time.

* A single vowel-sound is meant. The diphthongal character often given to words like these, especially in England, should carefully be avoided.

oe (foedus) may be given either (a) the sound of German *ö* or (b) the sound of *oi* or *oy* (*boy, boil*).

Hitherto both *ae* and *oe* have usually been pronounced like *ē*, and the Association does not consider that there are sufficient grounds for departing from this custom.

ei (Proculeius); by pronouncing *e* and *i* separately and then fusing the sounds, a sound like that of *ē* is arrived at.

C.—Greek letters used in Latin.

z as *dz* in *adze*, or, at the beginning of a word, as English *z*.

ch *k-h*, not as *l* (nor as *ch* in *chair*), but rather like Scotch or German *ch* (*loch*), though with a more distinct *k*-sound.

For the purposes of ordinary Latin teaching, *th* and *ph* may be pronounced as in English, and *ȳ, ȳ* as *ī, ȳ*.

G. G. RAMSAY,

*President of the Classical Association
of Scotland.*

W. R. HARDIE,

*Convener of Committee on the Pro-
nunciation of Latin.*

Rules of the Association.

1. The Association shall be called "THE CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION OF SCOTLAND."

2. The objects of the Association shall be to bring together for practical conference all persons interested in Classical Study and Education; to promote communication and comparison of views between Universities and Schools; to discuss subjects and methods of Teaching and Examination, and any other questions of interest to Classical Scholars that may from time to time arise.

3. All are eligible for Membership who are interested in Classical Education, and desirous of promoting its efficiency.

4. The Council of the Association shall consist of the President, Vice-Presidents, Secretary, and Treasurer, all *ex officio*, together with twelve Ordinary Members of Council. At every Meeting of the Council five shall form a quorum.

5. One-third of the Ordinary Members of Council shall retire annually in rotation and shall not be re-eligible to the same office till after the expiration of one year.

6. The Association shall hold annually two regular Meetings, one in Spring and one in Autumn; and it shall be in the power of the Council, if they think it desirable, to arrange for a Meeting at any other time.

At each Meeting of the Association a Local Committee shall be appointed to make arrangements for the following meeting in communication with the President and the Secretary.

7. The place of meeting shall be in the four University towns in rotation, and *three weeks'* notice shall be given of each Meeting.

8. The Annual Subscription shall be Five Shillings, to be paid to the Treasurer for the ensuing twelve months in October, or not later than 31st December. Life Membership is obtained by a single payment of Three Guineas. If any Member's Subscription is two years in arrear, the Council shall, after due notice, remove his name from the list of Members.

9. It shall be in the power of the Association at a General Meeting to amend or alter any of the above Rules, with consent of two-thirds of the Members present—due notice of any such proposed alteration to be made to the Secretary before the said Meeting, and stated on the billet of business.

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Who retire in November 1907.

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Who retire in November 1908.

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Who retire in November 1909.

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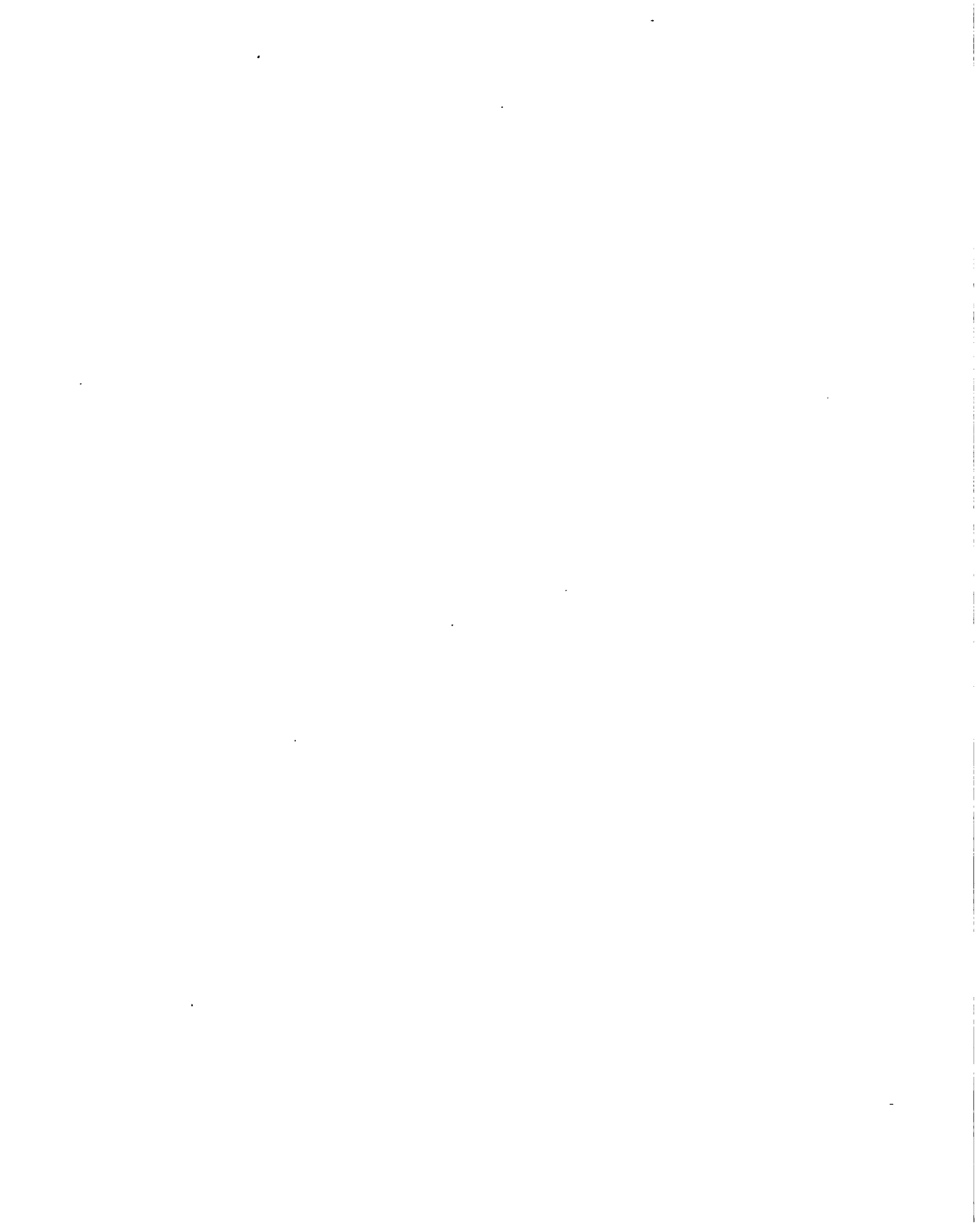
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